

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN OCCUPATIONAL ROLE  
CONFLICT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING,  
JOB SATISFACTION, JOB INVOLVEMENT AND STRESS

KENNETH A. LOVE

A thesis

submitted in partial fulfilment  
of the requirement for the degree of  
MASTER OF SCIENCE IN PSYCHOLOGY  
University of Canterbury  
October 1987

## CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	iv
LIST OF TABLES .....	v
LIST OF FIGURES .....	vi
ABSTRACT .....	1
CHAPTER 1	
Introduction	
Literature Review .....	4
Person Perception and Inter-Group Relations	
The Theory .....	4
The Empirical Evidence .....	8
Occupational Role Conflict	
The Theory .....	12
The Empirical Evidence .....	15
Perceptual Accuracy .....	16
Definitions .....	17
Rationale .....	18
Hypotheses .....	22
CHAPTER 2	
Method	
Subjects .....	23
Stimulus Material .....	23
Occupational Image Ratings Scales ...	24
The Dependent Measures .....	25
Manipulation Check .....	29
Procedure .....	29
CHAPTER 3	
Results	
Occupational Role Conflict .....	30
Occupational Role Conflict and Affective Response .....	36
Perceptual Accuracy .....	41
Gender Differences .....	43
Manipulation Check .....	50
CHAPTER 4	
Discussion	
Occupational Role Conflict .....	54
Occupational Role Conflict and Affective Response .....	55
Perceptual Accuracy .....	56

	PAGE
Gender Differences .....	58
Limitations .....	60
Future Research Recommendations .....	61
Implications .....	63
Conclusions .....	64
REFERENCES .....	66
APPENDICES .....	80

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My thanks go to my supervisor, Dr. M.S. Singer for her guidance and patience during the course of this study. I would also like to acknowledge the assistance of the New Zealand Police Department and in particular Chief Inspector Arthur Jonus for his enthusiastic co-operation.

Finally, my sincere thanks go to Liz Bulleid for her assistance, encouragement and support during the course of this study.

# LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1.	Mean ratings of the self, perceived and actual occupational images of male and female police officers.	31
2.	Mean ratings for each dependent variable.	32
3.	T-test summary data for occupational role conflict.	34
4.	The relationship of self and perceived occupational image.	37
5.	Correlations between significant self-perceived occupational image discrepancies and the dependent variables : male police officers.	38
6.	Correlations between significant self-perceived occupational image discrepancies and the dependent variables : female police officers.	39
7.	T-test summary data for perceptual accuracy.	42
8.	T-test summary data for null mean comparison for self occupational image ratings.	44
9.	T-test summary data for null mean comparison for perceived occupational image ratings.	45
10.	T-test summary data for null mean comparison for actual occupational image ratings.	46
11.	T-test summary data for gender differences.	47
12.	Mean ratings for each occupation.	51
13.	T-test summary data for the manipulation check.	52

## LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Continuum of Occupations .....	53

## ABSTRACT

The study investigated gender differences in occupational role conflict and the effects on emotional and motivational aspects of occupational behaviour in the male-dominated occupation of law enforcement. Male and female police officers rated themselves and their colleagues on an occupational image rating scale. Three image ratings were obtained for each subject (a) self occupational image, (b) perceived occupational image, and (c) actual occupational image. The discrepancy between the self and perceived occupational images was used as an indicator of occupational role conflict. It was argued that due to the relatively recent inclusion of policewomen as generalist officers, male officers' predominantly negative attitudes towards female officers, and the 'masculine' image associated with the policing role; female police officers would experience greater role conflict than their male counterparts. Contrary to predictions, the results showed that female police officers did not experience greater role conflict than male officers. Furthermore, occupational role conflict did not correlate significantly with measures of psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job involvement or felt stress. Self and perceived occupational images were found to relate positively with one another. In addition, it was shown that, compared with male officers, female officers had more accurate perceptions of the views their counterparts held towards them. Gender differences in the self, perceived and actual occupational images were found. The results were discussed in the context of symbolic interactionism theory and the recent findings on occupational self-efficacy expectancies.

## CHAPTER 1

### Introduction

The defining of occupations along sexual dimensions is an objective reality of the occupational world. A common basis for defining occupations as masculine and feminine, in the psychological literature, has been to assess the relative proportion of men and women in a particular occupation. Recent years, however, have seen increased female involvement in the work force, heightened female consciousness and enhanced concern over psychological and other barriers to the proper assimilation of females into work organisations (Kanter, 1966, 1977; Melchionne, 1967). This growing overt expression of the feminist ideology has prompted the re-examination of cultural conceptions of masculinity and femininity and the implications of gender-typed roles and behaviour.

The present research concerns itself with such issues as it focuses on sex role and occupational role stereotypes and their consequences with regard to the recruitment and utilisation of women in law enforcement.

Policing has long been an occupation reserved for men. That is not to say that women are a newly implemented resource within the policing system. Traditionally, however, the duties assigned to policewomen have been restricted to a small number of tasks, typically 'feminine' in type (e.g. administrative/secretarial duties). In the past few years there has been a gradual movement away from the specialist toward the more generalist role, with women being assigned to duties that have traditionally been considered 'masculine' in type (e.g. patrol duties). For an account of the development of the role of women in law enforcement see Bell (1982) and Thorne (1980, 1973).



According to Vega and Silverman (1982) this influx of women has had a two fold effect. Firstly, the widely held assumption that women are unfit for police work because they lack the required traits has been strongly challenged. Secondly, the true nature of police work has received greater scrutiny. Both, it is felt, have had consequences for the smooth integration of women into law enforcement in recent times. Despite interest, however, integration research is lacking. Much of what does exist is, in the main, poorly designed and expressed in anecdotal terms.

Task effectiveness, occupational acceptance and attitudinal research has received most attention and valuable exploratory information has emerged. Despite indications that female officers perform as well as males in many aspects of policing (Bloch and Anderson, 1974), attitudinal studies reveal the existence of predominantly negative non-supportive attitudes expressed by male police officers towards the assimilation of women into the generalist role (Bloch and Anderson, 1974; Golden, 1981; Hindman, 1975; Thorne, 1980; Vega and Silverman, 1982).

Negative interactions play a critical part in developing role conflicts (Stryker and Statham, 1985). A role is seen as a set of "...behaviours that are created and maintained within a particular social context, that takes into account not only the player's subjective state but his or her perception of others' expectations of his or her behaviour" (Bruner, 1981, p6). Conflicts arise when friction is created between two or more roles that differ in quality or character (e.g. sex role versus occupational role). In light of the attitudinal research, the present study aimed to investigate the significance of male and female police officers' perceptions of one another in terms of their relationship to occupational role conflict. The issue of perceptual accuracy was also addressed.

## Literature Review

Recent theories of person perception and role conflict provide the framework for the present study. Firstly, cognitive-social theories of information processing are used to illustrate the role of prejudice, expectancies and biased perceptions in the formation of inter-group relations. The application of interactional role theory then allows us to examine how people's perceptions of their social environment can facilitate occupational role conflict. Finally, the empirical literature on perceptual accuracy will be presented.

### Person Perception and Inter-Group Relations

#### The Theory

The cognitive-social approach views the individual as an information processing unit that selectively attends - actively and passively - to social information. A variety of different cognitive structures are considered to influence selective attention; including schemata and expectancies (Stephan, 1985).

Generally speaking, schemata and expectancies actively influence information processing by focusing the perceiver's attention and by structuring what is perceived to aid with the interpretation, encoding, storage and retrieval of that information.

Of all the recognised cognitive structures, it is the schemata that has received most examination in recent times. They have been defined in a variety of ways. Put simply, they are cognitive structures consisting of knowledge concerning a social stimulus domain (Neisser, 1976; cited in Stephan, 1985). Of interest in the present research are the social schemata. In this domain they, "...provide perceivers with hypotheses about what will happen in

specific situations and what to expect from people occupying specific roles or from members of socially defined groups" (Stephan, 1985, p 604). A useful starting point for detailing social schema structure is Hayes-Roth's (1977) theory of knowledge assembly. According to Hayes-Roth, a schema consists of components and links among the components. It progresses with experience; beginning as a collection of individual components and ending as a tightly integrated unit with strong associations among components. These associations are strengthened through experience.

It is fair to say that the schema research and theorising has been less explicit about schematic processes than about structure. The Hayes-Roth theory, however, is consistent with learning theories; early and late (e.g. Hebb's (1949) cell assembly theory, associative networks views on learning and memory (e.g. Wickelgren, 1981)) and more recently Fiske and Dyer (1985) have shown that social schema development incorporates transfer of learning, at least during the early stages.

The role of the schemata as a processing system can be best understood in terms of an activation model, in which 'activation' refers to the stimulation of a concept or feature that is stored in long-term memory. Once an element has been activated due to a certain stimulus, the linked components represented within the same schema are also activated (Cohen, 1981).

Social schemata may be situation-based, person-based or category-based (Stephan, 1985). Of the many, the most relevant schemata to inter-group relations are the in-group-out-group schemata and causal schemata.

The research on in-group-out-group schemata indicates that positive information leads to more favourable ratings of an out-group member than an in-group member. Negative information, however, leads to less favourable ratings of an

out-group member. In essence, out-group members are evaluated more extremely (Brewer, 1979; Lenville and Jones, 1980).

Since the work on social inference (Jones and Davis, 1965) and social causality (Kelley, 1973), schematic models of dispositional attribution have become more refined (Reeder and Brewer, 1979). Causal schemata are now recognised as being among the most important schemata in social situations. They provide the rules that enable us to infer behavioural causality. According to Stephan (1985, p 607), "when social categories and causal schemata are both activated in a given situation the stereotypes associated with the social group provide a ready set of potential causes". This causal inference is referred to by Pettigrew (1979; cited in Stephan, 1985) as the 'ultimate attribution error'. This typically results in internal attributions for positive in-group behaviours and negative out-group behaviours and external attributions for negative in-group and positive out-group behaviours. Pettigrew (1979; cited in Stephan, 1985) suggests that where a history of conflict exists among groups this tendency to err should be intensified. Expectations also influence inferential processes. They do so by affecting the focus of attention and facilitating the retention of expectancy confirming information. Those related to social groups or categories are not only framed by schemata, but can be primed by information supplied by those immediately around us. Stephan (1985) lists three principal origins of expectancies : our direct experience with social situations and with other people; our observations of our own behaviour; and information we acquire through socialisation, the mass media and from peers.

The effect of category-based expectations on perception is well documented in the social interaction literature. It is clear from the research that race, sex and occupation are often used as basic categories in processing information

about others (Eagley and Steffen, 1984; Pliske and Smith, 1979; Taylor et al, 1978). Generally, the expectations that are set lead to selective perception that confirms the existence of stereotyped traits. A stereotype is, "...a generalisation or belief about a particular group of people; most typically the generalisation is that group members have particular traits" (Bringham, 1971, p 30). They may be differentiated from other generalisations in a number of ways. They are over-generalisations in the sense that they tend to be uniformly applied to all members of a particular group, they tend to be extreme and more often than not negative than positive (McArthur, 1982).

It follows, therefore, that the properties perceived in a given situation will depend to a great extent upon how the stimulus is categorised (McArthur, 1982). The categorisation of objects is based on their similarity along one or more defining dimensions. Using this process, within category differences are minimised (assimilation effect) and between category differences are exaggerated (contrast effect). By facilitating the distortion of information processing, assimilation and contrast effects promote the formation and maintenance of inappropriate expectations, out-group segregation and stereotypic beliefs.

The phenomenon of 'illusory correlation' (an encoding bias involving categorisation), together with the evidence for selective attention, provides a cogent explanation for the tendency to form negative, extreme stereotypes about novel stimuli. In short, illusory correlation is due to misjudgement of the covariance of two sets of events (Stephan, 1985). As a result a group bias is formed with evaluations favouring the majority.

The study of prototypes provides the final illustration of the enduring nature of stereotypes. A prototype is defined as, "the most typical member of a category" (Stephan, 1985, p 610). When individuals are classified into a social

category a comparison is formed between their features and those of the prototype and a judgement on the degree of similarity is made. In doing so prototype-consistent information is attributed a greater weight than prototype-inconsistent information in future evaluations, thus largely negating any individuating information necessary for making unique personal judgements.

### The Empirical Evidence

Intergroup relations research is widely published and indeed continues to grow particularly under the guidance of the cognitive-social approach. The theoretical contentions of this view point consistently draw support from the research findings and our understanding of social processes is developing as a greater variety of social situations are investigated. It is true, however, that the exploratory potential of the occupational domain has not been fully tapped, nor have researchers taken advantage of opportunities resulting from the increasing involvement of women in the work force.

In their examination of in-group and out-group member evaluations, Lenville and Jones (1980) found conclusive support for the view that out-group members are evaluated more extremely. In one of a set of studies, white subjects read about a law school applicant who was either white or black and well or poorly qualified. The well qualified black applicant was rated more favourably than the well qualified white, but the poorly qualified black was rated less favourably than the comparable white. They interpret their findings in terms of the complexity of in-group and out-group schemata. They argue that people have more complex schema regarding their own groups than other groups and that as a result people tend to make more moderate judgements regarding in-group than out-group members. This is consistent with Fiske and Dyer's (1985) contention that by virtue of the stronger links among a greater number of

schematic components, experts (in-group members) have effectively more processing capacity in their domain of expertise. In their 1983 study Fiske et al showed that while both experts and novices used schema-consistent information, only experts had the capacity to use schema-inconsistent information when making judgements. These results have subsequently been supported by Pryor and Merluzzi (1985). This ability to process inconsistent information for the in-group more than likely results in more balanced or moderate evaluations of in-group members and more extreme judgements for out-groups where specific favourable and unfavourable information assumes greater evaluative significance.

Evidence for the 'ultimate attribution error' is well documented. Duncan (1976) reported that white subjects labelled an act (ambiguous shove) as more violent when it was performed by a black 'actor' than when the same act was performed by a white person. Furthermore, they found causal attributions to be divergent; with situation attributions being preferred when the perpetrator was white and dispositional attributions when he was a black person. In a similar study, Sagar and Schofield (1980) supported Duncan's (1976) finding providing strong evidence that even relatively innocuous acts by black males are likely to be considered more threatening than the same behaviour by white males. Dovidio et al (1986) reported finding an identical pattern of racial bias. The implication is that stereotype-based expectancy confirmation accounts for bias in behavioural attribution. Using sex as a category, Cowan and Koziej (1979) revealed that dominant females were seen as more 'masculine' than dominant males. In a related study they found that the magnitude of out-of-role behaviour judgements varied according to the sex of the ratee with out-of-role females being judged more extremely than out-of-role males (Cowan and Koziej, 1979).

On the issues of ability and performance, Deaux and Emswiller (1970) reported finding that on a masculine task female success was more strongly attributed to luck in comparison to skill than the same performance of males. Furthermore, competent females have been consistently judged less competent than competent males (Pheterson et al, 1971) and their achievements have been seen as more motivated than 'naturally' occurring (Feldman-Summers and Kiesler, 1974). The finding of Taynor and Deaux (1975) is particularly poignant. On the task of apprehending a gunman, although the female 'actor' was seen as more deserving of an award, the male 'actor' was considered more able when performing similarly on the same task.

The studies to date implicate stereotyping and prejudicial attitudes in the activation of the 'ultimate attribution error'. When evoked stereotype-consistent or attitude - consistent causal inferences are made. As a result, in the majority of cases, negative perceptions of out-group members and positive perceptions of in-group members are substaisted (Stephan, 1985).

In their research on expectancies, Robinson and McArthur (1981; cited in McArthur, 1982) and Taylor et al (1978) found that categorising a stimulus person by sex is sufficient to elicit sexual stereotypes. Shinar (1978) reported that males and females were perceived congruently with the opposite sex role stereotype when employed in sex-inappropriate occupations (e.g. engineer, lawyer, florist, head librarian). Women were judged as competent and leader-like and men were judged as lacking in leadership qualities. This tendency to selectively attend to expectancy confirming information has been reported elsewhere (e.g. Rodin and Langer, 1980; Snyder and Cantor, 1979; Snyder and Swann, 1978; Sagar and Schofield, 1980).

A number of studies support the contention that categorisation yields assimilation and contrast effects.



Secord and colleagues, (Secord, Dukes and Bevan, 1954; Secord and Muthard, 1953; cited in McArthur, 1982) found that people who physically resembled each other were perceived to have similar traits. Using meaningless non-physical attributes as a basis for categorisation Gerard and Hoyt (1974) showed that, on a perceptual judgement task, evaluations of an in-group member differed significantly from evaluations of an out-group member, even though there was no objective basis for differentiating between the two. Research by Taylor, Fiske and Ruderman (1978) revealed that categorising people in terms of race and sex yields assimilation and contrast effects, some of which cannot be explained in terms of pre-existing stereotypes.

Illustrating the assimilation effect, Secord, Bevan and Katz (1956) found that identifying a photograph as a member of the category 'Negro' was sufficient to yield the full Negro stereotype even when the photograph was sufficiently ambiguous that if it had been viewed alone it may not have been recognised as a Negro. Similarly Tajfel, Shiekh and Gardner (1964) found that categorisation on ethnic grounds was sufficient to elicit ethnic stereotypes. More recently, Taylor et al (1978) demonstrated the same effect using categorisation based on sex. When combined assimilation and contrast effects promote negative attitudes toward the out-group and increased liking of in-group members. Hensley and Duval (1976) revealed that as the opinions of the subject and dissimilar group became increasingly discrepant, attitudes toward the dissimilar group became more negative and attitudes toward the similar group became increasingly positive. By fostering a restricted view of out-group members and magnifying group differences, assimilation and contrast effects promote stereotyping of out-group members more so than in-group (Quattrone and Jones, 1980) and hinder changes in stereotypic beliefs (Wilder and Allen, 1978).

Evidence for the existence of 'illusory correlation' is provided by Hamilton and Gillford (1976), Hamilton and Rose

(1980), Rothbart, Evans and Fulero (1979) and Tversky and Kahneman (1973). Its facilitation of group evaluations favouring the majority is conclusively demonstrated by Hamilton and Gillford (1976) and McArthur and Friedman (1980). For example, Hamilton and Gillford (1976) found that for infrequent occurrences of negative behaviour, the evaluations of the minority group were more negative than those of the majority and when positive behaviours were infrequent, evaluations of the majority group were more positive than those of the minority.

Finally, Tversky (1977) and Rasinski, Crocker and Hastie (1985) supported the notion that stereotypes are enduring. Rasinski et al (1985) showed that even when subjects were faced with clear and definite individuating behavioural information they showed a great reluctance to revise their base-rate stereotypes, placing most emphasis on prototype-consistent information.

### Occupational Role Conflict

#### The Theory

Interactionist role theory is a recent development blending together two related theoretical frameworks : structural role theory and symbolic interactionism. As separate entities they have fostered many critics. Combined, however, they constitute a useful social psychological theory shedding new light on the issue of roles and interpersonal relations.

Structural role theory is essentially a framework for the analysis of social structure. As such its concern lies mainly with how roles are learned and how once learned they function to co-ordinate and simplify the lives of people. It is a perspective oriented toward order and stability. Herein lies its major weakness and not surprisingly it is with this that critics have been most damning, labelling it

static, over-simplistic and rigid. In essence it fails to adequately account for process, viewing the social person as a pragmatic performer unable to influence norms, roles or society in general (Turner, 1974).

Symbolic interactionism stems primarily from the works of Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934) and is a framework for the analysis of social interaction and the social person. The pivotal concept in Mead's thinking is the 'self', conceived of as a product of social interaction. More specifically, it is a reflection of the perceptions of others. The relationship between individuals' self perceptions and how they assume others perceive them has been well researched. Analyses have revealed, in the main, modest to strong correlations (Davidson and Lang, 1960; Edwards and Klockarts, 1981; Kemper, 1966; Miyamoto and Dornbusch, 1956; Quarantelli and Cooper, 1966; Teichman, 1972). Symbolic interactionism's main theoretical claim is that the self mediates the relationship between society and social behaviour. An important element in the mediation is the subjective aspect in social interaction. That is, the notion that the perceptions that people have of one another are facts of society whether they be accurate or not. This rationale provides symbolic interactionism with its prime methodological rule: "...if men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (Thomas and Thomas, 1928; cited in Stryker and Statham, 1985).

Symbolic interactionists have commonly addressed the relationship of personal organisation or an individual's sense of consistency to interpersonal behaviour. Theorists maintain that upon entering a social situation, persons respond by defining it (Stryker and Statham, 1985). This definition takes the form of a pattern incorporating a variety of social objects (Hewitt, 1979). Among those absorbed will be oneself and others with whom one interacts. Positions or designations will be assigned thus setting up a range of role expectations. At the same time the others

involved also define the situation. The ensuing interactions are a function of the process of defining activities (Stryker and Statham, 1985). Organised interpersonal behaviour is dependent on congruence between the definitions of self, the situation, other social objects and their perceptions, and the role. In terms of the present research, congruence between self, perceived and actual occupational images and behavioural expectations. Conversely incongruities in definitions result in incongruities in role expectations with personal disorganisation or conflict being the likely outcome. As a result the disorganised individual is unable to play his role properly in relation to others and hence sets up a chain of reactions to social disorganisation (Sharan, 1978).

By merging these two approaches interactionists have moulded a framework that recognises interactive processes and perhaps more importantly people's perceptions of their social world. For interactionist role theorists the major enquiry is not how persons fit their behaviour to fixed sets of expectations but how persons manage to interact with others in ways that are both meaningful and satisfying (Stryker and Statham, 1985).

Interactionists contend that social support and the quality of interaction are crucial for role satisfaction. Furthermore, role satisfaction reflects, in part, the degree to which personal preferences, values and self images are integrated into role relationships. The emphasis is on role consensus. Where role partners can agree on preferred role arrangements, the degree of satisfaction is likely to be high. Theorists postulate that there are three types of agreements important to satisfaction : the fit between role partners with respect to norms for role performances, the fit between their personality systems, and the fit between role performance and personality systems and sustained on-going interaction (Stryker and Statham, 1985).

### The Empirical Evidence

Despite the interest in roles and role conflict there is a dearth of research addressing the interactionist view point. The literature has focused, in the main, on issues of marital discord and aging and role satisfaction. In this area the findings are supportive of interactionists' contentions. The early literature on aging has shown that role occupancy is critical for self definition and hence for positive feelings towards the self and life in general and that interaction and social support are critical to satisfying role portrayals (Cavan, 1962; Petrowsky, 1976; Robertson, 1977; Wood and Robertson, 1978). Macke et al (1979; cited in Stryker and Statham, 1985) revealed that individuals who occupied roles with restricted access to societal rewards (e.g. housewife) were frequently reported as having lower self esteem. Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1976), Glen and Weaver (1978) Mechanic (1980) and Verbugge (1980) reported similar findings.

The research on role conflict indicates that increased satisfaction with role relationships can be achieved where individuals regain consistency in their portrayals, typically through bargaining with role partners (Araji, 1977; Robertson, 1977). Gordon and Hall (1974) in looking at role conflicts and perceptions found that a woman's perception of a male's stereotype of femininity was the best predictor, of those measures taken, of various types of conflicts experienced. More specifically, the less potent and more emotional a woman believed men felt women were the more conflicts she experienced in her roles outside of the home environment. Similarly, but to a lesser degree, the discrepancy between self image and perceived image scores predicted experienced conflicts in women. The findings suggest that in a more male-dominated environment outside the home, the man's standards of femininity may create difficulties for women. Only one study could be found that addressed role conflict in the occupational domain. Bruner

(1981) approached the issue of conflicts experienced by women in a non-standard occupation (i.e. show girl). Her qualitative analysis revealed that role conflict was induced by a discrepancy between the real and ideal self concepts and by a discrepancy between the real self concept and a person's self concept as they see others perceiving them (i.e. perceived image).

### Perceptual Accuracy

Perceptual accuracy research stems primarily from attempts to validate the symbolic interactionists' position. The main assertion is that there is a demonstrable congruence between perceived-other evaluations and actual-other evaluations.

Correlational analyses have produced conflicting results, with some studies indicating congruence (Edwards and Klockarts, 1981; De Tung and Gardner, 1962) and some partial (Goslin, 1962; Israel, 1958; Walhood and Klopfer, 1971) or ambiguous relationships (Ausubel, 1955; Fey, 1955; Orpen and Bush, 1974). The research on gender differences in perceptual accuracy has been equally inconsistent in its findings (e.g. Horowitz, 1962; Klimoski and London, 1974; Schneider, 1970).

In their review of the symbolic interactionist research, Schrauger and Shoeneman (1979) were unable to find any distinguishable factors that reasonably accounted for the presence or absence of significant positive associations. They point out, however, that congruent relationships typically occur when evaluative judgements are made (e.g. liking) than when content specific judgements are required.

### Definitions

The following terms will be used in the present research. Some of the definitions have been taken from the work of Bruner, (1981). Where this is the case due reference has been made.

**ROLE:** Behaviours that are created and maintained within a particular social context, that takes into account not only the player's subjective state but his or her perception of others' expectations of his or her behaviours. It is an interactive process (Bruner, 1981 p 6).

**DISPARATE ROLE:** Two or more roles that are distinctly different in quality or character (Bruner, 1981 p 6).

**ROLE CONFLICT:** An experiential friction created between disparate roles, it is subject to environmental and experiential modification (Bruner, 1981 p 6). In this study role conflict may be seen as the difference in the way participants see themselves in their role of police officer and how they experience their opposite sexed colleagues perceiving them as police officers.

**SELF OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE:** How one sees oneself within the context of the occupation.

**PERCEIVED OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE:** How one sees others seeing one within the context of the occupation.

**ACTUAL OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE:** How others see one within the context of the occupation.

### Rationale

There is a lack of well designed research examining the consequences of increasing female involvement in the workforce. A survey of the existing research reveals that most attention has been directed toward the upsurge of women in management. The organisational problems associated with female role expansion within traditionally male dominated work environments has yet to be fully addressed. The law enforcement area is a case in point.

The policing occupation is perceived as 'masculine' in type (as supported by the results of a manipulation check in this study). The expansion of the female police officer's role has produced very real and visible changes both within the organisation itself and on the streets where policewomen now undertake general patrol duties. There have been a small number of studies addressing this transition. Martin (1979) described the dilemmas facing policewomen as they seek acceptance. She groups female officers into two categories - policewomen and policewomen. The former strive to fulfill their occupational role obligations. They adopt a number of coping strategies to maximise their effectiveness as officers, including a strong emphasis on professionalism, assertiveness, occupational achievement and loyalty to the department. Policewomen occupy the opposite end of the spectrum. Most are uncomfortable with their occupational role and adopt a service orientated perspective which is more compatible with their female sex role. They are generally less careerist and less interested in promotion. Both groups resent the constant tests of competence and the fact that an individual woman is taken as a representative of the whole group. Attitudinal studies have clearly revealed the feelings of policemen with regard to the integration of women into the generalist role. Bloch and Anderson (1974) showed that male police officers' attitudes towards the performance of women in patrol functions, particularly in situations involving violence, tended to be



negative. Vega and Silverman (1982) found that male officers expressed more negative attitudes than female police officers regarding the ability of females to perform adequately as patrol officers. Approximately fifty percent of males and twenty percent of females indicated that women should not be considered for assignment to patrol division. Although female officers considered themselves emotionally ready to perform patrol functions, male officers felt that they were not assertive enough. Both groups question female officers' ability to handle violent situations and their physical strength. Finally, Sterling and Owen (1982) found that as generalist officers, females were rated as more tenacious, assertive and active than their male counterparts regardless of their behaviour.

The present study represents an attempt to examine the effects of mass female involvement in a traditionally 'masculine' occupation. Its main aim was to investigate the effect of perceptions on occupational role conflict.

The research on intergroup relations has clearly shown the effects of bias, expectancies and categorisation on perception and in the formation and maintenance of stereotypes. With female officers being very much the out-group one would expect strong negative attitudes and segregation to characterise the male-female officer relationship (Hensley and Duval, 1976; Quattrone and Jones, 1980, Wilder and Allen, 1978). The police research has already alluded to this pattern. These extreme and generalised perceptions held by male officers have definite implications for the social interaction process and role satisfaction of female police officers. As outlined by interactional role theory incongruities between the self and the situation - including individuals' perceptions of it - result in disorganised interpersonal behaviour and conflict. The literature reviewed indicates that role conflict can be caused by discrepant self and perceived images (Bruner, 1981; Gordon and Hall, 1974). This resulting conflict

inhibits the female officer from playing her role in relation to others generating negative feelings toward life and occupational roles. In contrast female officers' perceptions of male police officers should approximate the male sex role stereotype (Robinson and McArthur, 1981; Taylor et al, 1978). Given the 'masculine' image of the occupation, these perceptions are expected to closely resemble male officers' self occupational images. This congruence between the self and the work environment would result in satisfying role portrayals for male police officers.

The second purpose of the study was to examine the issue of perceptual accuracy. As gender differences have been inconsistent (Horowitz, 1962; Klimoski and London, 1974; Schneider, 1970), no differences between male and female officers were expected.

Finally, the study aimed to investigate gender differences in the occupational image measures. The research on person perception has demonstrated the enduring nature of stereotypic beliefs even when faced with clear and specific individuating information (Quattrone and Jones, 1980; Rasinski, Crocker and Hastie, 1980; Snyder and Canter, 1979; Snyder and Schofield, 1980; Snyder and Swann, 1978; Taylor, Fiske and Ruderman, 1978; Tversky, 1977). As such it was anticipated that male and female police officers would differ significantly in their actual and perceived occupational image ratings. In addition, symbolic interactionism asserts that individuals' self perceptions are congruent with the way they see themselves as being perceived by others (Davidson and Lang, 1960, Edwards and Koocharts, 1981; Kemper, 1966; Miyamoto and Dornbusch, 1956; Quarantelli and Cooper, 1966; Teichman, 1972) which in turn is a reflection of how others actually perceive them

(Edwards and Klockarts, 1981; De Tung and Gardner, 1962). Gender differences in actual and perceived image ratings were therefore expected to surface in the ratings of self occupational image.

## Hypotheses

The hypotheses formulated from the literature are presented below.

Hypothesis 1: Female police officers would experience greater occupational role conflict than male police officers. That is, the discrepancies between self and perceived occupational images would be greater for female than for male police officers.

Hypothesis 2: There would be a significant relationship between role conflict and psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job involvement and felt stress.

Hypothesis 3: There would be no gender differences in perceptual accuracy. That is, the differences in perceived and actual occupational images would not be significant between the two samples of male and female police officers.

Hypothesis 4: There would be significant gender differences in the three occupational image measures.

## CHAPTER 2

### Method

#### Subjects

Three hundred and thirty seven New Zealand police officers across numerous occupational levels (i.e. from inspector to constable), were sampled (200 males, 137 females). Individuals were chosen from lists of personnel obtained from each location headquarters. The male subjects were selected randomly while, due to the relatively small number of policewomen, all female subjects were included.

The subjects were sampled from three areas within New Zealand: Christchurch central city and districts, Wellington central city and districts and Auckland central city and districts. These areas were chosen because it was considered that they, in combination, would provide a sufficiently large and representative sampling of male and female officers. The Christchurch area was sampled in May 1984, the Auckland area in June 1984 and the Wellington area in June 1985.

One hundred and seventy eight completed questionnaires were returned (103 males, 75 females), giving a response rate of 53%.

#### Stimulus Material

The subjects were required to fill out a questionnaire package consisting of three occupational image ratings scales and five dependent measures : psychological well-being, specific job satisfactions, general job satisfaction, job involvement and felt stress. The entire package is presented as Appendix 1.

(A) The Occupational Image Ratings Scales

These scales were constructed by the researcher and were designed for reporting people's perceptions of themselves and others. There were three occupational image rating scales - the semantic differential, the effectiveness rating scale and the occupational acceptance rating scale. For all scales a seven point rating was used for scoring and polar adjectives were reversed in order to counteract response bias.

(1) The Semantic Differential

Nine adjective pairs, selected from previous person perception research (Singer and Singer, 1985) were used to rate occupational image. The dimensions were: threatening - non-threatening, kind - unkind, assertive - submissive, patient - impatient, trusting - suspicious, strong - weak, intelligent - unintelligent, competitive - non-competitive, effective - ineffective.

(2) The Effectiveness Rating

The task effectiveness rating employed one adjective pair (effective - ineffective) applied across four items. The items addressed policing functions that have shown to discriminate between male and female police officers on perceptions of competence (Kerber et al, 1977; Vega and Silverman, 1982). These items were: effectiveness in handling violent offenders, effectiveness in handling domestic disputes, effectiveness in handling riot situations, effectiveness in handling youth aid problems.

Where necessary the items were re-worded, without losing any of their meaning, to align them culturally and be less specific in their description.

### (3) The Occupational Acceptance Rating

The occupational acceptance rating employed one adjective pair (acceptable - unacceptable) and was devised to tap the notion of professional acceptance.

#### (B) The Dependent Measures

##### (1) Psychological Well-Being

The Affectometer 2, developed by Kammann and Flett (1983), was used to obtain the measure of well-being. Based on an early prototype and the Affectometer 1 (Kammann, Christie, Irwin and Dixon, 1979) it taps ten qualities of happiness; confluence, optimism, self esteem, self efficacy, social support, freedom, social interest, energy, cheerfulness and thought clarity. The Affectometer 2 uses sentences and adjectives to measure positive and negative affect. The shortened twenty items version consisting of sentences alone was used in the present research. A five point graded response scale was used representing how often a certain feeling was present over a specified period of time. The response alternatives were: not at all, occasionally, some of the time, often, all of the time; scored zero to four respectively.

The full Affectometer 2 score yields a reliability coefficient of 0.95 while shortened versions have reported reliabilities ranging from 0.78 to 0.93 (Kammann and Flett, 1983). As the Affectometer 2 consists mainly of items taken from Affectometer 1, validity data on this original version is applicable to the Affectometer 2. The Affectometer 1 has been correlated with thirteen other scales measuring happiness, life satisfaction and neuroticism (Kammann, Christie, Irwin and Dixon, 1979; Kammann, 1983). The results revealed that the Affectometer 1 yielded substantial correlations in the range of 0.68 to 0.75 with the majority of measures, indicating a high concurrent validity.

Further, the examination of factor loadings showed that the Affectometer 1 was the scale most highly loaded on an overall factor of well-being (0.88). The research on its clinical correlates indicates that the Affectometer 1 encompasses in its meaning the concepts of neuroticism, anxiety, depression and somatic complaints. (Kammann et al, 1979; Fazio, 1977; Lichter, Maye and Kammann, 1980).

## (2) Specific Job Satisfaction

The measure of specific job satisfactions was obtained through the use of the appropriate scales contained within the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) package (Hackman and Oldham, 1974, 1975).

Within the JDS, Hackman and Oldham include a fourteen item measure tapping five specific satisfactions : Pay (items 2, 9), Job Security (items 1, 11), Social (items 4, 7, 12), Supervisory (items 5, 8, 14) and Growth Satisfaction (items 3, 6, 10, 13). The first four of these are referred to as Work Context Satisfactions. Growth Satisfaction is concerned with intrinsic features of the job being the degree to which an employee is satisfied with opportunities for personal growth and development on the job.

A seven point response dimension was used and scores were averaged within each subscale. The response alternatives used were: extremely dissatisfied, dissatisfied, slightly dissatisfied, neutral, slightly satisfied, satisfied, extremely satisfied, scored one to seven respectively.

Statistical and psychometric data has been published by Hackman and Oldham (1974, 1975, 1980); Hackman, Pearce and Wolfe (1978); Oldham (1976); and Oldham, Hackman and Pearce (1976). Unfortunately much of the data reported has come from relatively small samples; being further limited with regard to both job and organisation types. However, a comprehensive summary of the data from 6930 employees



working on 876 jobs in 56 organisations was provided by Oldham, Hackman and Stepina (1978). Spearman-Brown reliabilities ranged from 0.64 to 0.87. Within the four context satisfactions the median inter-correlation was 0.445 (range 0.28 to 0.5).

The growth satisfaction subscale itself was correlated positively with pay (0.43), security (0.51), social (0.57) and supervisory satisfaction (0.55).

### (3) General Job Satisfaction

The measure of general job satisfaction was also drawn from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) package (Hackman and Oldham, 1974, 1975). They describe this as "an overall measure of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the job" (Hackman and Oldham, 1975 p 162).

The complete measure comprises five items. It is, however, the short form comprising the first three items that was used in the present research. A seven point response dimension was used for each item. The response alternatives were: disagree strongly, disagree, disagree slightly, neutral, agree slightly, agree, agree strongly; scored one to seven respectively. Item number two, "I frequently think of quitting this job", was reverse scored, (i.e. from seven to one respectively). A mean response was taken for the three items. Reliability research reports internal consistency coefficients ranging from 0.74 to 0.80 (Feldman, 1976; Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1976; Hackman, Pearce and Wolfe, 1978; Katz, 1978; Oldham, Hackman and Stepina, 1978).

### (4) Job Involvement

The scale developed by Jans (1982) was used to obtain measures of job involvement. It is a fifteen item measure, tapping three distinct dimensions. The first, job

involvement (items 1, 2, 5, 6), addresses the notion of identification with the job. The second dimension, importance of performance to self esteem (items 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12) is considered similar to that of the Protestant work ethic. Lastly, specialisation involvement (items 13, 14, 15, 16), is understood to be the feeling of psychological identification with the specialisation of which the person's present job is a part.

For the present research a short form was used, comprising the items within the first two dimensions. Specialisation involvement was not included as given the nature of police work, it was considered irrelevant.

A five point response scale was used and scores were summed within each subscale. Item scoring was reversed so that high scores reflected positive attitudes. The response alternatives used were: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree; scored one to five respectively.

The development and assessment of the scale involved two studies sampling professional Army officers (Jans, 1982). The reliability data indicated reliability coefficients of 0.78 and 0.68 for the job involvement and importance of performance to self esteem (IPSE) dimensions respectively. The validity of the scale was assessed using a between groups comparison. The results showed that individuals who chose to stay in their present area of employment scored significantly higher on the job involvement dimension than those who chose to leave ( $t = 1.69$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ;  $t = 4.55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

In order to present a questionnaire relevant to the occupational type being sampled, certain items had to be reworded. Where this was the case the only alteration required involved replacing the word "Army" with "Police".

## (5) Felt Stress

The final dependent measure - felt stress, was incorporated in order to obtain a measure of the degree of felt stress experienced by police officers. One adjective pair (stressful - non-stressful) was employed to do so. A seven point scale was used for scoring.

### Manipulation Check

In testing the hypotheses the researcher has made the assumption that the New Zealand police officer role is perceived as masculine in type. As a manipulation check an occupational classification scale was compiled and administered to one hundred and eight students enrolled in an introductory psychology course at the University of Canterbury. The scale is based on research conducted by Shinar (1975) and was designed to elicit sexual stereotypes of occupations. From this original list, fifteen occupational titles were selected representing the various points on the masculinity-femininity continuum. The order of the occupations was randomised within the list. Each occupation was followed by a seven point ranking scale representing the degree to which it was perceived as being masculine, feminine or neutral; scored one to seven respectively with neutral being credited with four. The questionnaire is presented as Appendix 2.

### Procedure

The questionnaire package was mailed to each subject via his or her respective central headquarters. Each completed questionnaire was returned directly to the researcher. An introductory page was attached to the package to explain the nature of the research and provide explicit directions for filling in the package.

## CHAPTER 3

### Results

The means for each of the independent and dependent variables are presented in tables 1 and 2 respectively. Each occupational image dimension was scored one to seven from the left extreme to the right extreme adjective (e.g. Threatening = 1, Non-Threatening = 7; Kind = 1, Unkind = 7). The stress measure was also scored in this manner (i.e. Stressful = 1, Non-Stressful = 7). The score range for psychological well-being is -4 to +4 with -4 indicating extreme negative well-being, zero being neutral, and +4 reflecting extreme positive well-being. Specific and general job satisfactions were scored 1 to 7, job involvement 4 to 20 and IPSE 7 to 35. For these measures low scores reflected low job satisfaction, low job involvement and muted acknowledgement of the importance of performance to self esteem respectively while higher scores indicated more positive attitudes.

---

Insert Tables 1 and 2 about here

---

#### Occupational Role Conflict

Three separate analyses were conducted to assess role conflict. In all cases the hypothesis that female officers experience greater occupational role conflict than male officers was not supported.

The first analysis assessed the difference in the degree of occupational role conflict experienced by male and female police officers. For each sample the absolute difference between the mean self and perceived occupational image ratings for each dimension was calculated. These values

TABLE 1

31 Mean ratings of the self, perceived and actual occupational images of male and female police officers

Occupational Image Dimension	Male (N = 103)			Female (N = 75)		
	Self Occupational Image	Perceived Occupational Image	Actual Occupational Image	Self Occupational Image	Perceived Occupational Image	Actual Occupational Image
Threatening - Non-threatening	4.70 (1.42)	4.56 (1.50)	3.87 (1.53)	5.52 (1.18)	5.20 (1.48)	5.59 (1.30)
Kind - Unkind	2.36 (0.93)	2.82 (1.23)	3.24 (1.04)	2.27 (0.88)	2.22 (0.93)	2.39 (0.91)
Assertive - Submissive	2.58 (1.04)	2.94 (1.14)	2.35 (1.05)	2.96 (1.05)	3.22 (1.16)	3.64 (1.28)
Patient - Impatient	3.20 (1.56)	3.43 (1.49)	4.12 (1.37)	2.99 (1.56)	3.07 (1.45)	3.01 (1.29)
Trusting - Suspicious	4.07 (1.70)	3.67 (1.54)	5.13 (1.57)	3.89 (1.63)	3.53 (1.43)	3.34 (1.34)
Strong - Weak	2.60 (1.00)	2.87 (1.15)	2.73 (1.07)	3.00 (0.92)	3.62 (1.35)	4.10 (1.43)
Intelligent - Unintelligent	2.47 (1.00)	2.77 (1.07)	3.25 (1.04)	2.35 (0.85)	2.62 (1.02)	2.56 (0.96)
Competitive - Non-competitive	2.95 (1.63)	3.26 (1.44)	2.60 (1.20)	3.56 (1.59)	3.74 (1.43)	3.59 (1.39)
Effective - Ineffective	2.21 (0.90)	2.48 (0.93)	2.78 (0.94)	2.43 (0.81)	2.95 (1.07)	3.37 (1.47)
Violent Offenders (effective - ineffective)	2.34 (1.17)	2.87 (1.53)	1.99 (0.96)	3.92 (1.38)	4.34 (1.69)	5.09 (1.72)
Domestic Disputes (effective - ineffective)	2.47 (1.24)	2.83 (1.25)	3.53 (1.34)	2.41 (1.11)	2.80 (1.26)	3.13 (1.35)
Riot Situations (effective - ineffective)	2.56 (1.25)	2.92 (1.43)	2.24 (1.08)	3.88 (1.47)	4.67 (1.50)	5.19 (1.78)
Youth Aid (effective - ineffective)	2.92 (1.26)	3.13 (1.39)	3.80 (1.41)	2.77 (1.16)	2.90 (1.40)	2.56 (1.61)
Professional Acceptance (acceptable - unacceptable)	2.22 (1.03)	2.51 (1.00)	2.89 (1.15)	2.54 (1.05)	2.92 (1.23)	3.02 (1.48)

Standard Deviations in parentheses.

TABLE 2

Mean ratings for each dependent variable

DIMENSIONS	Male (N = 103)	Female (N = 75)
Psychological Well-Being	+1.89 (0.87)	+1.91 (0.97)
Pay Satisfaction	3.83 (1.57)	3.98 (1.63)
Security Satisfaction	5.40 (1.13)	5.36 (1.12)
Social Satisfaction	5.23 (0.93)	5.36 (0.92)
Supervisor Satisfaction	4.76 (1.38)	5.10 (1.26)
Growth Satisfaction	5.02 (1.16)	5.13 (1.02)
General Satisfaction	4.76 (1.41)	4.94 (1.30)
Job Involvement	13.16 (1.96)	12.99 (2.02)
IPSE	19.81 (4.18)	20.44 (3.02)
Stress (stressful - non-stressful)	2.60 (1.34)	2.69 (1.20)

Standard Deviations in parentheses

were then summed. The total for the male officers was 4.49 and for the female officers 4.77. An independent samples t-test was performed on the data. The t statistic was not significant ( $t = 0.215$ ,  $DF = 176$ ) suggesting that there is no difference between the degree of occupational role conflict experienced by male and female police officers.

The second test involved conducting a series of dependent t-tests to establish for which occupational image dimensions there was a significant difference between self and perceived image ratings. Differences in ratings were expressed in absolute terms. The results are presented in table 3.

---

Insert Table 3 about here

---

For both the male and female samples significant differences were recorded on the dimensions Assertive - Submissive; Trusting - Suspicious; Strong - Weak; Intelligent - Unintelligent; Effective - Ineffective; Effectiveness in handling violent offenders, domestic disputes and riot situations; and professional acceptance. A further two dimensions were found for the male sample; Kind - Unkind and Competitive - Non-competitive.

The results indicated that female police officers perceived themselves as less trusting ( $t = 2.66$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), stronger ( $t = -4.25$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more assertive ( $t = -2.06$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), more intelligent ( $t = -2.14$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), professionally more acceptable ( $t = -3.61$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more effective generally ( $t = -4.74$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and in handling violent offenders ( $t = -2.16$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), domestic disputes ( $t = -2.74$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and riot situations ( $t = -4.82$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) than they believed their male counterparts saw them. A similar pattern existed for male police officers with them perceiving themselves as less trusting ( $t = 2.49$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ),

34 TABLE 3

T-Test summary data for occupational role conflict

OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE DIMENSION	Male (N = 103)			Female (N = 75)		
	t Value	DF	Significance of t	t Value	DF	Significance of t
Threatening - Non-threatening	0.96	100	NS	1.93	73	NS
Kind - Unkind	-4.02	100	SIG ***	0.46	73	NS
Assertive - Submissive	-3.43	98	SIG ***	-2.06	73	SIG *
Patient - Impatient	-1.78	100	NS	-0.62	73	NS
Trusting - Suspicious	2.49	99	SIG *	2.66	73	SIG ***
Strong - Weak	-2.61	100	SIG **	-4.25	73	SIG ***
Intelligent - Unintelligent	-3.70	100	SIG ***	-2.14	72	SIG *
Competitive - Non-competitive	-2.59	100	SIG *	-1.45	73	NS
Effective - Ineffective	-2.64	100	SIG **	-4.79	73	SIG ***
Violent Offenders	-3.47	99	SIG ***	-2.16	72	SIG *
Domestic Disputes	-2.97	99	SIG **	-2.74	72	SIG **
Riot Situations	-2.46	97	SIG *	-4.82	71	SIG ***
Youth Aid	-1.55	99	NS	-0.65	72	NS
Professional Acceptance	-2.97	98	SIG **	-3.61	72	SIG ***

\*\*\* p < .001

\*\* p < .01

\* p < .05



stronger ( $t = -2.61$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), more kind ( $t = -4.02$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more assertive ( $t = -3.43$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more intelligent ( $t = -3.70$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more competitive ( $t = -2.59$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), professionally more acceptable ( $t = -2.97$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), more effective generally ( $t = -2.64$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and in handling violent offenders ( $t = -3.47$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), domestic disputes ( $t = -2.97$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and riot situations ( $t = -2.46$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) than they believed their female counterparts saw them.

As with the first analysis these findings suggest that there is no difference in the extent to which occupational role conflict exists for male and female police officers. Both groups registered self and perceived occupational image rating discrepancies with the male sample recording the greater number.

The final analysis compared the frequencies of male and female subjects registering high and low levels of role conflict. Results consistent with the first hypothesis would show the female police officers sample as having a significantly greater number of individuals with total discrepancy scores in the higher range and a significantly lesser number in the lower range; compared to the male officer group. The total occupational image discrepancy score was calculated for each individual by summing the absolute differences between self and perceived image ratings on the significant dimensions presented in table 3. These values were summed and a sample mean total discrepancy score was calculated ( $\bar{X} = 7.92$ ,  $SD = 5.21$ ,  $N = 178$ ). Scores one standard deviation above and below this measure were used as arbitrary high and low cut-off points (high point = 13.13, low point = 2.71). The number of male and female police officers scoring above and below the cut-offs was calculated and a Chi-Square analysis was performed on the data (see Appendix 3). The Chi-Square test statistic was not significant ( $\chi^2 = 0.16$ ,  $DF = 1$ ). The result suggests that there is no difference between the number of male and

female police officers experiencing either higher or lower levels of occupational role conflict.

A further analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between individuals' perceptions of themselves and how they assume others perceive them. The resulting coefficients of correlation between self and perceived image ratings are presented in table 4. Self and perceived occupational images showed a moderate to strong relationship. For male officers the average value of the coefficients was 0.52 (range 0.38 to 0.71) and for the female officers the average value was 0.54 (range 0.37 to 0.81). All coefficients were significant at the 0.001 level. That these two measures exhibit a significant positive relationship is consistent with Shrauger and Shoeneman's (1979) review findings of the symbolic interactionist perspective.

---

Insert Table 4 about here

---

#### Occupational Role Conflict and Affective Response

There was little support for the hypothesis that discrepancies between self and perceived occupational image ratings would correlate significantly with measures of psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job involvement and stress. The Pearson correlation coefficients are presented in tables 5 and 6.

---

Insert Tables 5 and 6 about here

---

TABLE 4

The relationship of self and perceived occupational image

OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE DIMENSION	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT			
	Male (n = 103)		Female (n = 75)	
Threatening - Non-threatening	0.50	*	0.48	*
Kind - Unkind	0.45	*	0.38	*
Assertive - Submissive	0.54	*	0.58	*
Patient - Impatient	0.64	*	0.81	*
Trusting - Suspicious	0.49	*	0.69	*
Strong - Weak	0.57	*	0.44	*
Intelligent - Unintelligent	0.68	*	0.46	*
Competitive - Non-competitive	0.71	*	0.69	*
Effective - Ineffective	0.38	*	0.48	*
Violent Offenders	0.39	*	0.46	*
Domestic Disputes	0.53	*	0.50	*
Riot Situations	0.44	*	0.57	*
Youth Aid	0.43	*	0.37	*
Professional Acceptance	0.54	*	0.67	*

\*  $p < 0.001$

TABLE 5

Correlations between significant self-perceived occupational image discrepancies and the dependent variables : male police officers

SIGNIFICANT DISCREPANCY  DIMENSION	Psychological Well-Being	Specific Job Satisfaction					General Job Satisfaction	Job Involvement	IPSE	Stress
		Pay	Security	Social	Supervisor	Growth				
Kind - Unkind		(-.24)* [-.22]		(-.27)*	(-.24)*					(.21)
Assertive - Submissive	[-.17]				.20		.23	[-.24]*	[-.20]	(.19)
Trusting - Suspicious			[-.17]							
Strong - Weak	-.22 (-.20) [-.30]*			[-.18]		-.18		[-.22]	-.26* [-.17]	[.19]
Intelligent - Unintelligent	[-.23]			.22 [.19]						
Competitive - Non-competitive	(-.26)* [-.30]**					(-.18) [-.20]	[-.17]			
Effective - Ineffective	-.27* (-.24)* [-.21]	[-.17]	-.30** (-.24)* [-.19]	-.20 (-.29)		-.19 (-.20)	(-.21)	[-.19]	[-.18]	[.21]
Violent Offenders (effective - ineffective)	(-.31)** [-.29]*								[-.18]	[.21]
Domestic Disputes (effective - ineffective)	(-.27)* [-.17]		(-.20)	-.23** (-.38)**	(-.19)	-.25* (-.19)	-.33* (-.18) [-.26]*	[-.17]		
Riot Situations (effective - ineffective)						-.21			-.26*	
Professional Acceptance (effective - ineffective)	-.18 (-.23) [-.35]**	(-.22)	(-.19)	[-.20]		-.28* [-.23]*	-.19 (-.21) [-.22]	[-.22]		.22 [.19]

\*\* p &lt; 0.001 ( ) : significant correlations between self occupational image ratings and the dependent variables

\* p &lt; 0.01

p &lt; 0.05

[ ] : significant correlations between perceived occupational image ratings and the dependent variables

39 TABLE 6  
Correlations between significant self-perceived occupational image discrepancies and the dependent variables : female police officers

SIGNIFICANT DISCREPANCY  DIMENSION	Psychological Well-Being	Specific Job Satisfaction					General Job Satisfaction	Job Involvement	IPSE	Stress
		Pay	Security	Social	Supervisor	Growth				
Assertive - Submissive	(-.35)* [-.24]		(-.24)	(-.20) [-.20]	(-.33)*			.23 (-.32)*		
Trusting - Suspicious	(.19)									-.23
Strong - Weak	(-.33)* [-.25]				(-.22)			.21		
Intelligent - Unintelligent	[-.31]*									
Effective - Ineffective	(-.32)* [-.26]		(-.19) [-.23]	[-.30]*	[-.31]*	(-.25) [-.26]	(-.19)	.29*		
Violent Offenders (effective - ineffective)			(-.27)*		(-.20) [-.35]**	[-.22]		.20 (-.23)		
Domestic Disputes (effective - ineffective)			-.24 (.21) [-.21]		(-.21)					
Riot Situations (effective - ineffective)	(-.26)	(.34)*	(-.20)		[-.34]*			.27		.21
Professional Acceptance (acceptable - unacceptable)			(-.21)	(-.32)* [-.28]*		(-.27) [-.32]*			-.21 (-.30)* [-.34]*	

\*\* p < 0.001      ( ): significant correlations between self occupational image ratings and the dependent variables  
 \* p < 0.01  
 p < 0.05      [ ]: significant correlations between perceived occupational image ratings and the dependent variables

The absolute discrepancy score for each individual across each discrepant dimension was correlated with the attitude and stress measures (dependent variables). Of the 110 correlations computed for the male sample 21 were significant. Pay satisfaction and job involvement did not correlate with rating differences on any of the occupational image dimensions. For the female officers 8 out of the 99 correlations calculated were significant. Psychological well-being, pay, social, supervisor, growth and general satisfactions did not correlate significantly with rating differences on any of the occupational image dimensions.

For male police officers, the discrepancy ratings on the dimension of effective - ineffective correlated significantly with psychological well-being (-.27), security satisfaction (-.30), social satisfaction (-.20) and growth satisfaction (-.19). Growth satisfaction also correlated significantly with the discrepancy ratings on the image dimension of strong - weak (-.18), domestic disputes (-.25), riot situations (-.21), and professional acceptance (-.28). Psychological well-being correlated significantly with two other discrepant image dimensions; strong - weak (-.22) and professional acceptance (-.18). For the female sample, job involvement correlated significantly with the discrepancy ratings on the dimensions of assertive - submissive (.23), strong - weak (.21), effective - ineffective (.29), violent offenders (.20) and riot situations (.27).

The correlations between the ratings of self occupational image and the dependent measures as well as the ratings of perceived occupational image and the dependent measures were also calculated. The data is presented in tables 5 and 6. For the male sample, 24 correlations involving self occupational image ratings and 33 correlations related to perceived occupational image ratings were significant. For the female sample, the numbers were 25 and 16 respectively. The results suggest that the ratings of either the self or

perceived occupational image are a better associate of the dependent measures than the discrepancy ratings.

Overall, the image dimensions of effective - ineffective and professional acceptance appeared to be the best correlates of the occupational attitude measures for both the male and female samples. The image dimension 'effectiveness in handling domestic disputes' also appeared to be a respectable correlate of the occupational attitude measures for the male sample, as did the assertive - submissive image dimension for the female sample. On the other hand, the image dimension of trusting - suspicious and intelligent - un-intelligent had few correlations with the occupational attitude measures for both samples. Of all the occupational attitude measures, psychological well-being related best to the various image ratings. Satisfaction with pay was least related to the image ratings for both subject samples. Supervisory satisfaction for the male sample and general job satisfaction for the female sample were also poorly related to the image ratings.

#### Perceptual Accuracy

Gender differences in perceptual accuracy was examined by conducting a series of independent samples t - tests to compare the mean ratings of perceived and actual occupational images for male and female officers. The results did not support the hypothesis that there would be no gender differences in perceptual accuracy. Table 7 presents this data.

---

Insert Table 7 about here

---

For the male sample, significant differences were found on all but the image dimension of strong - weak. The results showed that compared with the male officers' perceived

TABLE 7

42 T-test summary data for perceptual accuracy

OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE DIMENSION	Male Officers (N = 103)			Female Officers (N = 75)		
	t	DF	Significance of t	t	DF	Significance of t
Threatening - Non-threatening	3.03	174	SIG **	-1.8	172	NS
Kind - Unkind	-2.38	174	SIG *	-1.24	172	NS
Assertive - Submissive	3.52	173	SIG ***	-2.25	172	SIG *
Patient - Impatient	-3.17	174	SIG **	0.27	172	NS
Trusting - Suspicious	-6.16	173	SIG ***	0.88	172	NS
Strong - Weak	0.89	174	NS	-2.23	172	SIG *
Intelligent - Unintelligent	-2.99	174	SIG **	0.41	172	NS
Competitive - Non-competitive	3.21	174	SIG ***	0.71	172	NS
Effective - Ineffective	-2.15	173	SIG *	-2.10	172	SIG *
Violent Offenders (effective - ineffective)	4.38	172	SIG ***	-2.85	172	SIG **
Domestic Disputes (effective - ineffective)	-3.53	172	SIG ***	-1.61	172	NS
Riot Situations (effective - ineffective)	3.39	170	SIG ***	-2.02	172	SIG *
Youth Aid (effective - ineffective)	-3.11	172	SIG **	1.70	172	NS
Professional Acceptance (acceptable - unacceptable)	-2.35	171	SIG *	-0.49	171	NS

\*\*\* p &lt; 0.001

\*\* p &lt; 0.01

\* p &lt; 0.05



occupational image, the female officers actually perceived the male officers as more threatening ( $t = 3.03, p < 0.01$ ), less kind ( $t = -2.38, p < 0.05$ ), more assertive ( $t = 3.52, p < 0.01$ ), less patient ( $t = -3.17, p < 0.01$ ), less trusting ( $t = -6.16, p < 0.001$ ), less intelligent ( $t = -2.99, p < 0.001$ ), more competitive ( $t = 3.21, p < 0.001$ ), less effective ( $t = -2.15, p < 0.05$ ), more effective in handling violent offenders ( $t = 4.38, p < 0.001$ ), less effective in handling domestic disputes ( $t = 3.53, p < 0.001$ ), more effective in handling riot situations ( $t = 3.39, p < 0.001$ ), less effective in handling youth aid problems ( $t = -3.11, p < 0.01$ ), and less acceptable professionally ( $t = -2.35, p < 0.05$ ).

For the female sample, significant differences were found on five image dimensions. Compared with the female officers' perceived occupational image, the male officers actually perceived the female officers as less assertive ( $t = -2.25, p < 0.05$ ), less strong ( $t = -2.23, p < 0.05$ ), less effective ( $t = -2.10, p < 0.05$ ), less effective in handling violent offenders ( $t = -2.85, p < 0.01$ ) and less effective in handling riot situations ( $t = -2.02, p < 0.05$ ).

Overall, the female sample exhibited a much greater congruence between their perceived and actual occupational images than the male sample. This suggests that compared with male police officers, female police officers have more accurate perceptions of their male counterparts' perceptions of them.

### Gender Differences

Self, perceived and actual occupational image ratings were used in the analysis of gender differences. The hypothesis that there would be significant gender differences in the three occupational image measures received partial support from the data. The t test results are presented in tables 8 to 11.

TABLE 8

44 T-test summary data for null mean comparison for self occupational image ratings

OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE DIMENSION	Male		Female	
	t	Significance of t	t	Significance of t
Threatening - Non-threatening	4.96	SIG ***	11.18	SIG ***
Kind - Unkind	17.76	SIG ***	17.23	SIG ***
Assertive - Submissive	13.69	SIG ***	8.62	SIG ***
Patient - Impatient	5.21	SIG ***	5.68	SIG ***
Trusting - Suspicious	0.41	NS	0.58	NS
Strong - Weak	14.06	SIG ***	9.46	SIG ***
Intelligent - Unintelligent	15.54	SIG ***	16.68	SIG ***
Competitive - Non-competitive	6.46	SIG ***	2.40	SIG **
Effective - Ineffective	20.14	SIG ***	16.93	SIG ***
Violent Offenders	14.99	Sig ***	0.56	NS
Domestic Disputes	13.07	SIG ***	12.41	SIG ***
Riot Situations	11.52	SIG ***	0.76	NS
Youth Aid	9.09	SIG ***	8.99	SIG ***
Professional Acceptance	17.26	SIG ***	11.97	SIG ***

\*\*\* p < 0.001

\*\* p < 0.01

\* p < 0.05

TABLE 9

45 T-test summary data for null mean comparison for perceived occupational image ratings

OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE DIMENSION	Male		Female	
	t	Significance of t	t	Significance of t
Threatening -Non-threatening	3.76	SIG ***	6.98	SIG ***
Kind - Unkind	9.67	SIG ***	16.64	SIG ***
Assertive - Submissive	9.27	SIG ***	5.85	SIG ***
Patient - Impatient	3.92	SIG ***	5.59	SIG ***
Trusting - Suspicious	2.14	SIG *	2.90	SIG **
Strong - Weak	9.55	SIG ***	2.42	SIG * *
Intelligent - Unintelligent	10.72	SIG ***	11.68	SIG ***
Competitive - Non-competitive	5.23	SIG ***	1.56	NS
Effective - Ineffective	17.20	SIG ***	8.51	SIG ***
Violent Offenders	7.39	SIG ***	1.72	SIG *
Domestic Disputes	9.38	SIG ***	8.22	SIG ***
Riot Situations	7.52	SIG ***	3.81	SIG ***
Youth Aid	6.26	SIG ***	6.73	SIG ***
Professional Acceptance	14.79	SIG ***	7.55	SIG ***

\*\*\* p < 0.01

\*\* p < 0.01

\* p < 0.05

TABLE 10

46 T-test summary data for null mean comparison for actual occupational image ratings

OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE DIMENSION	Male		Female	
	t	Significance of t	t	Significance of t
Threatening - Non-threatening	0.79	NS	12.27	SIG ***
Kind - Unkind	6.34	SIG ***	17.71	SIG ***
Assertive - Submissive	13.25	SIG ***	2.82	SIG **
Patient - Impatient	0.76	NS	7.67	SIG ***
Trusting - Suspicious	6.23	SIG ***	4.91	SIG ***
Strong - Weak	11.09	SIG ***	0.69	NS
Intelligent - Unintelligent	6.24	SIG ***	15.05	SIG ***
Competitive - Non-competitive	10.13	SIG ***	2.96	SIG **
Effective - Ineffective	11.16	SIG ***	4.29	SIG ***
Violent Offenders	18.14	SIG ***	6.38	SIG ***
Domestic Disputes	3.09	SIG **	6.53	SIG ***
Riot Situations	13.98	SIG ***	6.70	SIG ***
Youth Aid	1.28	NS	13.02	SIG ***
Professional Acceptance	8.27	SIG ***	6.60	SIG ***

\*\*\* p < 0.001

\*\* p < 0.01

TABLE 11

47 T-test summary data for gender differences

OCCUPATIONAL IMAGE DIMENSION	Self			Perceived			Actual		
	t	DF	Significance of t	t	DF	Significance of t	t	DF	Significance of t
Threatening - Non-threatening	-4.17	174	SIG ***	-2.80	173	SIG **	-7.87	173	SIG ***
Kind - Unkind	0.65	174	NS	3.72	173	SIG ***	5.65	173	SIG ***
Assertive - Submissive	-2.39	173	SIG *	-1.56	172	NS	-7.36	173	SIG ***
Patient - Impatient	0.89	174	NS	1.60	173	NS	5.45	173	SIG ***
Trusting - Suspicious	0.69	174	NS	0.63	172	NS	7.95	173	SIG ***
Strong - Weak	-2.73	174	SIG **	-3.81	173	SIG ***	-7.23	173	SIG ***
Intelligent - Unintelligent	0.81	173	NS	0.95	173	NS	4.51	173	SIG ***
Competitive - Non-competitive	-2.49	174	SIG *	-2.21	173	SIG *	-5.06	173	SIG ***
Effective - Ineffective	-1.69	174	NS	-3.03	173	SIG **	-3.20	172	SIG **
Violent Offenders	-7.98	173	SIG ***	-5.90	171	SIG ***	-15.22	173	SIG ***
Domestic Disputes	0.34	173	NS	-0.18	171	NS	1.94	173	NS
Riot Situations	-6.19	171	SIG ***	-7.70	169	SIG ***	-13.54	173	SIG ***
Youth Aid	0.62	173	NS	1.05	171	NS	6.14	173	SIG ***
Professional Acceptance	-2.01	172	SIG *	-2.34	170	SIG *	-0.66	172	NS

\*\*\* p < 0.001

\*\* p < 0.01

\* p < 0.05

---

Insert Tables 8 to 11 about here

---

Each of the mean ratings of self occupational image was tested against a null mean of 4 (the neutral point of a seven-point scale). The results showed that male and female police officers perceived themselves as non-threatening, kind, assertive, patient, strong, intelligent, competitive, acceptable professionally, and effective generally and in handling violent offenders, domestic disputes and youth aid problems. Male officers also saw themselves as effective in handling riot situations. An independent samples t test was conducted to compare the mean ratings of the two samples. Significant gender differences in mean ratings of self occupational image were found on seven of the fourteen image dimensions. Compared to male officers, female police officers perceived themselves as significantly less threatening ( $t = -4.17, p < 0.001$ ), less assertive ( $t = -2.39, p < 0.05$ ), less strong ( $t = -2.73, p < 0.01$ ), less competitive ( $t = -2.49, p < 0.05$ ), less effective in handling violent offenders ( $t = -7.98, p < 0.001$ ), less effective in handling riot situations ( $t = -6.19, p < 0.001$ ), and less acceptable professionally ( $t = -2.01, p < 0.05$ ).

Each of the mean ratings of perceived occupational image was tested against a null mean of 4 (the neutral point of a seven-point scale). The results showed that male police officers believed that female police officers perceived them as non-threatening, kind, assertive, patient, trusting, strong, intelligent, competitive, acceptable professionally, effective, effective in handling violent offenders, effective in handling domestic disputes, effective in handling riot situations, and effective in handling youth aid problems. This same analysis showed that female officers believed that male police officers perceived them

47

as non-threatening, kind, assertive, patient, trusting, strong, intelligent, competitive, acceptable professionally, effective, effective in handling domestic disputes, effective in handling youth aid problems, ineffective in handling violent offenders, and ineffective in handling riot situations. An independent samples t test was conducted to compare the mean ratings of the two samples. Significant gender differences in mean ratings of perceived occupational image were found on eight of the fourteen image dimensions. Compared to male officers' perceived images, female police officers believed that their male counterparts perceived them as less threatening ( $t = -2.80, p < 0.01$ ), kinder ( $t = 3.72, p < 0.001$ ), less strong ( $t = -3.81, p < 0.001$ ), less competitive ( $t = -2.21, p < 0.05$ ), less effective ( $t = -3.03, p < 0.01$ ), less effective in handling violent offenders ( $t = -5.90, p < 0.001$ ), less effective in handling riot situations ( $t = -7.70, p < 0.001$ ), and professionally less acceptable ( $t = -2.34, p < 0.05$ ).

Each of the mean ratings of actual occupational image was tested against a null mean of four (the neutral point of a seven point scale). The results revealed that female police officers perceived their male counterparts as kind, assertive, suspicious, strong, intelligent, competitive, acceptable professionally, effective, effective in handling violent offenders, effective in handling domestic disputes and effective in handling riot situations. This same analysis showed that male police officers perceived their female counterparts as non-threatening, kind, assertive, patient, trusting, intelligent, competitive, acceptable professionally, effective, effective in handling domestic disputes, effective in handling youth aid problems, ineffective in handling violent offenders, and ineffective in handling riot situations. An independent samples t test was carried out to compare the mean ratings of the two samples. Significant gender differences in mean ratings of actual occupational image were found on twelve of the fourteen image dimensions. Compared to female officers'

perceptions of male officers, male officers perceived their female counterparts as less threatening ( $t = -7.87$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), kinder ( $t = 5.65$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), less assertive ( $t = -7.36$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more patient ( $t = 5.45$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more trusting ( $t = 7.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), less strong ( $t = -7.23$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), more intelligent ( $t = 4.51$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), less competitive ( $t = -5.06$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), less effective ( $t = -3.20$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), less effective in handling violent offenders ( $t = -15.22$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), less effective in handling riot situations ( $t = -13.54$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), and more effective in handling youth aid problems ( $t = 6.14$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

#### Manipulation Check

The means for each occupation are presented in table 12. The masculinity - femininity scale was scored one to seven respectively with four being the neutral point. A series of t tests were conducted to establish the sexual stereotype associated with the police officer role. Table 13 presents the data. All of the occupations, save engineer and race car driver, were found to have mean ratings significantly different from that of police officer.

---

Insert Tables 12 and 13 about here

---

Figure 1 depicts the relative standing of all the occupations rated. The results suggest that the police officer role is labelled strongly masculine. The assumption that the New Zealand police officer role is perceived as traditionally masculine in type is therefore considered valid.



TABLE 12

Mean ratings for each occupation

OCCUPATION	MEAN
Police Officer	1.99 (0.96)
Engineer	2.07 (1.16)
Head Librarian	4.92 (1.33)
Race Car Driver	1.98 (1.12)
Radio Announcer	3.27 (1.11)
Dentist	2.56 (1.23)
Law Clerk	3.83 (1.19)
Florist	5.82 (1.24)
Pharmacist	3.51 (1.23)
Private Secretary	6.07 (1.22)
Social Worker	4.72 (1.27)
Computer Programmer	3.46 (1.12)
Counselling Psychologist	3.76 (1.02)
Politician	2.56 (1.11)
Bank Teller	4.71 (1.12)

Ratings on 7-point scale "1" : extremely masculine

"7" : extremely feminine

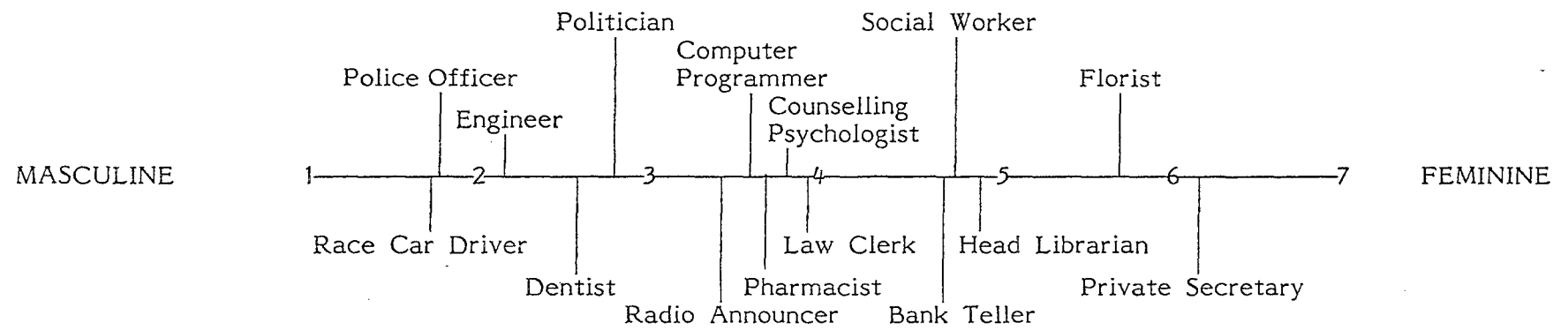
TABLE 13

T-test summary data for the manipulation check

OCCUPATION	t Value	DF	Significance of t
Engineer	- 0.65	107	NS
Head Librarian	-17.88	107	SIG *
Race Car Driver	0.08	107	NS
Radio Announcer	- 9.40	107	SIG *
Dentist	- 3.85	107	SIG *
Law Clerk	-12.09	107	SIG *
Florist	-22.32	107	SIG *
Pharmacist	-10.07	107	SIG *
Private Secretary	-24.46	107	SIG *
Social Worker	-16.13	107	SIG *
Computer Programmer	-10.75	107	SIG *
Counselling Psychologist	-13.68	107	SIG *
Politician	- 4.88	107	SIG *
Bank Teller	-16.47	107	SIG *

\*  $p < 0.001$

Figure 1. Continuum of Occupations



## CHAPTER 4

### Discussion

The findings of this study failed to support the first three hypotheses. The fourth hypothesis did receive support. It was found that there was no difference in the degree of occupational role conflict experienced by male and female police officers. In addition, it was shown that occupational role conflict, as indexed by the discrepancy between the self and perceived occupational images, did not correlate significantly with life satisfaction and occupational attitude measures. Contrary to expectations, the study did reveal significant gender differences in perceptual accuracy. Finally, as anticipated, there were significant gender differences in the ratings of the self, perceived and actual occupational images.

#### Occupational Role Conflict

It was argued that due to the out-group status of female police officers and 'masculine' image of the police role, male and female officers would differ in the degree to which they experienced occupational role conflict. It was reckoned that this difference would be reflected in the magnitude of their self-perceived occupational image discrepancies, with female officers rating higher on all counts. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in the summed discrepancies between self and perceived occupational image ratings for both samples, in the number of discrepant occupational image dimensions, and in the numbers of male and female officers experiencing high and low levels of conflict.

For both samples, significant self-percieved occupational image discrepancies were recorded for the majority of the image dimensions. Although this result was anticipated for

the female sample, such a large number of significant discrepancies was not expected for the male contingent (i.e. 11 out of 14). This finding suggests that, despite their minority status, the assimilation of women into the generalist police officer role has implications, in terms of occupational role conflict, not only for female officers but also for male officers.

Based on previous literature (e.g. Davidson and Lang, 1960; Edwards and Klockarts, 1981; Kemper, 1966; Miyamoto and Dornbusch, 1956; Orpen and Bush, 1974; Quarantelli and Cooper, 1966; Teichman, 1972; Walhood and Klopfer, 1971) it was thought that self and perceived occupational images would correlate significantly with one another. The correlational analysis revealed a moderate to strong relationship as expected. This finding supports the symbolic interactionists' contention that self evaluations are a reflection of individuals beliefs about how others perceive them.

#### Occupational Role Conflict and Affective Response

On the basis of previous literature it was expected that occupational role conflict would correlate significantly with measures of affect (Araji, 1977; Cavan, 1962; Robertson, 1977; Petrowsky, 1976; Wood and Robertson, 1978). The results of the present study, however, indicated that this was not the case. In the majority of instances self-perceived occupational image discrepancies did not correlate significantly with psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job involvement or felt stress.

Previous studies have focused their attention on issues of marital discord and aging and role satisfaction. The findings indicate that the quality of interaction and sense of personal consistency in relationships are important determinants of role satisfaction (Araji, 1977; Cavan, 1962; Robertson, 1977; Petrowsky, 1976; Wood and Robertson, 1978).

An essential distinction between these studies and the present research is in the use of a designated significant other. Most of the existing literature deals with spouse and other family relationships. Work colleagues, however, may not be granted similar status. If so we would not expect role conflict, as measured here, to relate significantly with the well-being, attitudes, and felt stress of male and female police officers. In light of this the present results were not surprising. The data showed that these occupational attitude measures were better predicted by either the self or the perceived occupational image ratings alone. This is consistent with the findings of Gordon and Hall (1974). They showed that self image scores were a better predictor of satisfaction and happiness than the discrepancy scores. In the present study it was found that the more favourable the self occupational image ratings, the higher the well-being, the job satisfaction and the job involvement ratings. Specifically, the more effective and professionally acceptable the officers perceived themselves, the more satisfied and the more involved they were with their profession. Taken together, these findings cast doubts on the validity of the discrepancy measure in predicting such emotional and motivational aspects of occupational behaviour.

#### Perceptual Accuracy

The investigation of perceptual accuracy revealed an interesting contrast. The data showed that the perceived occupational image ratings and others' actual image ratings were more closely matched for the female than the male sample, indicating that compared with male officers, female police officers have more accurate perceptions of their counterparts' perceptions of them. This finding is inconsistent with Edwards and Klockarts (1981). They found that males and females were equally accurate in their perceptions of their spouse's actual attitudes toward them. In their review of the relevant literature, Shrauger and

Shoeneman (1979) argue two conditions necessary for obtaining accurate perceptions. Firstly, group members must be deemed relevant significant others. Edwards and Klockarts (1981) found that by using the spouse rather than peers for example, they were able to display consistent and positive correlations between perceived - other evaluations and actual evaluations for both sexes. It may be that male police officers do not view female officers as significant others. If so it would help explain the large number of significant perceived - actual occupational image dimension discrepancies found for the male sample. Secondly, individuals must have a high degree of interaction with the members of the group in a wide variety of situations and must relate their evaluations of each other. Without feedback individuals cannot gain accurate impressions of how others perceive them. It follows, that if peers are hesitant about providing feedback then individuals, being unaware of how others actually perceive them, could not be expected to predict these perceptions accurately. In light of the need to gain acceptance and successfully exist in a male dominated environment (Martin, 1979; Sherman, 1975), female police officers may choose not to publicise their perceptions - particularly if they are negative. If so it would be reasonable to expect that the male contingent would have very little information on which to base an accurate evaluation of their actual occupational image. In turn, if by virtue of their 'dominance' male officers air their opinions freely and regularly we would expect female officers to have accurate perceptions of their actual occupational image; as indicated in the present study.

In their review of the perceptual accuracy literature Shrauger and Shoeneman, (1979) observed that congruence between perceived and actual image ratings typically occurred when highly evaluative judgements were made than when content-specific judgements were required. The findings of the present study do not support this observation. For those occupational image dimensions



exhibiting congruence in the female sample, all but one (i.e. professional acceptance) were considered to possess high content specificity (e.g. threatening - non-threatening, kind - unkind, patient - impatient, trusting - suspicious, effectiveness in handling violent offenders, effectiveness in handling youth aid problems).

### Gender Differences

Based on previous literature it was expected that stereotypic gender differences would exist in the ratings of the perceived and actual occupational images. Furthermore, consistent with the symbolic interactionist position, it was anticipated that these differences would surface in the self occupational image ratings. The results of the present study indicated significant gender differences on all three occupational image measures.

With regard to self perceptions, while both male and female police officers held such positive views about themselves as kind, assertive, patient, strong, intelligent, effective and professionally acceptable, the self occupational image ratings of female police officers were significantly lower (less favourable) than those of male officers on seven of the fourteen image dimensions. This finding is consistent with the recent literature on gender differences in occupational self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986; Betz and Hackett, 1981; 1986). Betz and Hackett (1981) first applied self-efficacy theory to occupational choice behaviour in an attempt to explain the continued under-representation of females in traditionally male dominated occupations (e.g. Pfafflin, 1984) and the underutilisation of their abilities in their career development (e.g. Fitzgerald and Crites, 1980). They postulated that self-efficacy expectations - a person's beliefs concerning his or her ability to successfully perform a given task or behaviour (Bandura, 1977) - have particular relevance for both the understanding and facilitation of women's career development. Betz and

Hackett had their subjects assess their self-perceptions of occupational efficacy by responding to questions about their abilities in matching the educational requirements and job duties of both the traditionally 'male' and traditionally 'female' occupations. They found consistent gender differences in self-efficacy. Males reported equivalent occupational self-efficacy with regard to the two classes of occupation. Compared to males, however, females reported significantly higher levels of occupational self-efficacy with regard to traditional female occupations and significantly lower levels of occupational self-efficacy with regard to traditional male occupations. Furthermore, these gender differences were predictive of various occupational choice behaviour. Similar results have been obtained by several later studies (e.g. Layton 1984; Wheeler, 1983).

The present data showed that, in the male-dominated occupation of law enforcement, female officers had significantly less favourable views of their own occupational capabilities than male officers. It also showed that the perceived occupational image was less favourable for female than for male officers. This suggests that female officers believe that their male counterparts have lower occupational efficacy expectancies about them. From the symbolic interactionists' perspective, this belief would contribute to female officers' relatively low self-efficacy expectancies.

With regard to actual perceptions, while both male and female police officers held such positive views about each other as kind, assertive, intelligent, competitive, effective and professionally acceptable, the actual occupational image ratings of female police officers were significantly less favourable than those of male officers on seven of the fourteen image dimensions. Compared to female officers' perceptions of male officers, male officers perceived their female counterparts as less assertive, less

strong, less effective generally, less effective in handling riot situations, less effective in handling violent offenders, and more effective in handling youth aid problems. These findings are consistent with previous attitudinal research, (e.g. Bloch and Anderson, 1974; Golden, 1981; Hindman, 1975; Vega and Silverman, 1982). Common to all these studies is the questioning, by male officers, of female officers' ability to effectively handle patrol duties, particularly when confronted with violent or potentially violent situations.

### Limitations

Several limitations concerning methodology are relevant to the present study. First, the use of semantic differential rating scales in assessing occupational images entails a priori assumptions of such images. There are other risks in using such a rating scale. Specifically, the calculations are based on the assumption of equality of intervals both within each dimension and between different dimensions. The occupational image dimensions used in this study may not all be of equal importance in terms of their contribution to role conflict. Weightings were not determined nor was the occupational relevance of each dimension. Second, in the present design role conflict was inferred from the self-perceived image discrepancies. Lastly, it was assumed that work colleagues were designated significant others. This may not be so as the subjects were not consulted on this issue. Where previous studies have allowed the subjects to nominate their significant other, consistent and strong relationships between role conflict and affective response have been demonstrated.

Nonetheless, the study represents the first attempt in examining, within the same design, the self, perceived and actual perceptions of male and female law enforcement officers, and the relationship between these perceptions and

psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job involvement and felt stress.

#### Future Research Recommendations

The results of this study suggest a number of future research needs. Given the limitations of semantic differential rating scales, future studies could employ open-ended interview techniques in measuring occupational images. As role conflict could only be inferred in the present design, future research could measure role conflict by other means such as interviews or questionnaires. Important responses to direct questions could then be analysed.

The issue of determining significant others also requires attention. Future studies of this type should allow subjects the opportunity to appoint their own significant other. By doing so the impact of occupational role conflict can be clearly established.

The significance of the direction of differences in perception is a further issue worthy of investigation. In the present study the absolute discrepancy score was used as an indicator of role conflict. As a result important qualitative information may have been buried. Information that could explain more clearly the relationship between perceptions and occupational role conflict.

A natural extension of this type of research is the investigation of conflict resolution. Martin (1979) outlined the various strategies adopted by policewomen and policewomen in coping with their role relationships. As with most police research, however, her's was a qualitative and anecdotal account. Sorely lacking are well designed empirical studies addressing the resolution strategies of male and female officers as role partners. Enquiries of

this kind would have definite practical implications for law enforcement organisations.

With improved methodologies future studies examining perceptions and occupational role conflict should manipulate other variables to ascertain whether conflict exists generally or for only particular groups of officers under specific circumstances. Of particular interest would be age and level of educational attainment. Vega and Silverman (1976; cited in Vega and Silverman, 1982) found that police officers who had college training were more likely to respond positively to questions related to females on police patrol. In a later study they revealed that a significantly greater number of those officers who did not attend college as compared with those who did believed that female officers should not be considered for jobs as patrol officers (Vega and Silverman, 1982). Golden (1981) obtained similar results. The research on age indicates that younger officers (aged 20 to 30 years) have slightly more favourable attitudes towards female officers in general and that a significantly greater proportion of older officers (31 years and older) believed that women should not be considered for jobs as police patrol officers (Vega and Silverman, 1982).

More research is required investigating the interactionist role theory perspective. It is an interesting proposition that individuals' perceptions of their social world contribute to the generation of conflict. Its examination should develop our understanding of social interactive processes. The research to date has been limited to marital and other family relationships. Its application in the occupational domain should be the subject of more attention.

Finally, as the data on gender differences in self perceptions are consistent with recent literature on self-efficacy theory, the present study could lead to further research on the application of self-efficacy theory to such

areas of occupational behaviour as job satisfaction and job involvement.

### Implications

The findings of the present study indicated that, despite male 'domination' there was no significant difference in the degree of occupational role conflict experienced by male and female police officers. Previous research addressing female involvement in the workforce has centred on the effects of integration on women workers. The present results suggest that male workers are also likely to be affected, perhaps adversely. Incongruent perceptions can have a negative influence on the course of intergroup social interactions by creating conflict and misunderstandings and leading to inappropriate responses. Where sound working relationships are necessary to ensure success - as is the case in law enforcement organisations - discrepant perceptions in role partnerships have definite implications for organisational efficiency.

This study showed that self-efficacy ratings were correlated significantly with occupational attitudes and behaviour. Specifically, the more effective and professionally acceptable officers perceived themselves, the more satisfied and involved they were with their profession. The data also showed that female officers had significantly less favourable self-efficacy ratings than male officers. The present study indicates then that for female officers, low self-efficacy expectancies may be acting as a barrier to high levels of job satisfaction and involvement. Bandura (1977) contends that such expectancies are learned and modified via four types of information : (a) performance accomplishments; (b) vicarious learning; (c) emotional arousal; and (d) verbal persuasion, for example encouragement and discouragement. This study has suggested that female officers' lower expectancy ratings may be attributable, in part, to their beliefs that male officers

have lower occupational-efficacy expectancies about them. Research has supported the usefulness of a focus on self-efficacy expectations in the treatment of several clinical problems (e.g. Bandura, Adams and Beyer, 1977; Kazdin, 1979). The self-efficacy model of behaviour, therefore, has quite clear implications for the training and management of police officers, particularly female officers. Training and management programmes that recognise the development and contribution of such expectancies to individual functioning, could quite conceivably return benefits in terms of job performance and attitudes.

### Conclusions

The findings of this study can be summarised as follows:

1. In the male-dominated occupation of law enforcement, no significant differences were found in the degree of occupational role conflict experienced by male and female police officers.
2. Occupational role conflict, as indexed by the discrepancy between the self and perceived occupational images, correlated significantly with only a few of the dependent measures - psychological well-being, security satisfaction, social satisfaction and growth satisfaction for male officers, and job involvement for female officers.
3. Overall, occupational attitude measures were better predicted by either the self or the perceived occupational image ratings than by the discrepancies between them. The image dimensions of effective - ineffective and professional acceptance appeared to be the best correlates of all the occupational attitude measures for both the male and female samples. It was found that the more effective and professionally acceptable the officers perceived themselves, the more

satisfied and the more involved they were with their profession. These findings cast doubts on the validity of the discrepancy measure in predicting emotional and motivational aspects of occupational behaviour.

4. Significant gender differences in perceptual accuracy were found. Overall, compared with male officers, female officers have more accurate perceptions of their male counterparts perceptions of them.
5. Significant gender differences were found on all three occupational image measures. This finding is consistent with the recent occupational self-efficacy literature. Female officers had significantly less favourable views of their own occupational capabilities than male officers. They also had less favourable perceived occupational images.
6. Self and perceived occupational image ratings were found to correlate significantly and positively with one another, supporting the symbolic interactionists' view of the self as a product of social interaction.



## REFERENCES

- Araji, S. (1977). Husbands' and wives' attitude-behaviour congruence on family roles. Journal of Marriage and Family, 39, 309 - 321.
- Ausubel, D.P. (1955). Socioempathy as a function of sociometric status in an adolescent group. Human Relations, 8, 75 - 84.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy : Toward a unifying theory of behaviour change. Psychological Review, 84, 191 - 215.
- Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 4, 359 - 373.
- Bandura, A., Adams, N.E., and Beyer, J. (1977). Cognitive processes mediating behaviour change. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35, 125 - 139.
- Bell, D.J. (1982). Policewomen : Myths and Reality. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 10 (1), 112 - 120.
- Betz, N.E. and Hackett, G. (1981). The relationship of career-related self-efficacy expectations to perceived career options in College women and men. Journal of Counselling Psychology, 28, 399 - 410.
- Bloch, P. and Anderson, D. (1974). Policewomen on Patrol : Final Report. Washington, D.C. The Police Foundation.
- Brewer, M.B. (1979). In-group bias in the minimal intergroup situation : a cognitive-motivational analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 86, 307 - 324.

- Brickman, P., Coates, D. and Janoff-Bulman. (1978). Lottery Winners and Accident Victims : Is Happiness Relative? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36, 917 - 927.
- Bruner, J.M. (1981). Role conflict and self-concept congruency in working women. Doctoral Dissertation, University Microfilms International No. 81-08729.
- Campbell, A., Converse, P.E., and Rodgers, W.L. (1976). The Quality of American Life. New York : Russell Sage Foundation.
- Cavan, R.S. (1962). Self and roles in adjustment being old age. In A.M. Rose (Ed.) Human Behaviour and Social processes. Boston : Houghton Mifflin.
- Cohen, C.E. (1981). Goals and Schemata in Person Perception : Making sense from the stream of behaviour. In Cantor, N., and Kitilstrom, J.F. Personality, Cognition and Social Interaction. New Jersey. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Colhoun, H. (1983). Moods. Unpublished thesis for Bachelor of Science with Honours, Department of Psychology, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.
- Cooley, C.H. (1902). Human nature and the social order. New York : Scribner's.
- Cowan, G., and Koziej, J. (1979). The perception of sex-inconsistent behaviour. Sex Roles, 5 (1), 1 - 10.
- Davidson, H.H., and Lang, G. (1960). Children's perceptions of their teachers' feelings toward them related to self perception, school adjustment and behaviour. Journal of Experimental Education, 29 107 - 118.

Deaux, K., and Emswiller, T. (1970). Explanations of successful performance on sex-linked tasks : What is skill for the male is luck for the female. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 1 - 7.

De Tung, J.E., and Gardner, E.F. (1962). The accuracy of sex role perceptions : A developmental study. Journal of Experimental Education, 31, 27 - 41.

Dohrenwend, B.P., and Dohrenwend, B.S. (1976). Sex differences and psychiatric disorders. American Journal of Sociology, 81, 1447 - 1454.

Dovidio, J.F., Evans, N., and Tyler, R.B. (1986). Racial Stereotypes : The contents of their cognitive representations. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 22 (1), 22 - 37.

Duncan, B.L. (1976). Differential social perception and attribution of intergroup violence : Testing the lower limits of stereotyping of blacks. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, (4), 590 - 598.

Eagly, A.H. and Steffen, V.J. (1984). Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46 (4), 735 - 754.

Edwards, A.L., and Klochart, A.J. (1981). Significant Others and Self Evaluation : Relationships between perceived and actual evaluations. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 7, (2), 244 - 251.

Fazio, A.F. (1977). A concurrent validation study of the NCHS general well-being schedule. DHEW Publication number (HRA) 74 - 1347. Hyattsville, Md, National Center for Health Statistics.

- Feldman - Summers, S.A., and Kiesler, S.B. (1974). Those who are number two try harder : The effect of sex on attributions of causality. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 30, 846 - 855.
- Fiske, S.T., and Dyer, L.M. (1985). Structure and development of social schemata : Evidence from positive and negative transfer effects. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48 (4), 839 - 852.
- Fiske, S.T., Kinder, D.R., and Larter, H.M. (1983). The novice and the expert : Knowledge - based strategies in political cognition. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 19, 381 - 400.
- Fitzgerald, C.F., and Crites, J.O. (1980). Toward a career psychology of women : What do we know? What do we need to know? Journal of Counselling Psychology, 27, 44 - 62.
- Gerard, H.R., and Hoyt, M.F. (1974). Distinctiveness of social categorisation and attitude toward in group members. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29, 836 - 842.
- Glenn, N.D., and Weaver, C.N. (1978). A multivariate, multi-survey study of marital happiness. Journal of Marriage and Family, 40, 269 - 282.
- Golden, K. (1981). Women as patrol officers : A study of attitudes. Police Studies, 4 (3), 29 - 33.
- Gordon, F.E., and Hall, D.T. (1974). Self image and stereotypes of femininity : Their relationship to women's role conflicts and coping. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, (2), 241 - 243.

- Goslin, P.A. (1962). Accuracy of self perception and social acceptance. Sociometry, 25, 283 - 296.
- Hackman, J.R., and Oldham, G.R. (1974). The Job Diagnostic Survey : An instrument for the diagnosis of jobs and the evaluation of job redesign projects. Yale University, Department of Administrative Sciences, Technical Report No 4.
- Hackman, J.R., and Oldham, G.R. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 159 - 170.
- Hackman, J.R., and Oldham, G.R. (1980). Work Redesign Addison - Wesley.
- Hackman, J.R., Pearce, J.L., and Wolfe, J.C. (1978). Effects of changes in job characteristics on work attitudes and behaviours : A naturally occurring quasi-experiment. Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance, 21, 289 - 304.
- Hamilton, D.L., and Gillford, R.K. (1976). Illusory correlation in interpersonal perception : A cognitive basis of stereotypic judgements. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 12, 392 - 407.
- Hamilton, D.L., and Rose, T.L. (1980). Illusory correlation and the maintenance of stereotypic beliefs. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 39, 832 - 845.
- Hayes-Roth, B. (1977). Evaluation of cognitive structure and processes. Psychological Review, 84, 260 - 278.
- Hebb, D.O. (1949). The organisation of behaviour : A neuropsychological theory. New York : Wiley.

- Hensley, V., and Duval, S. (1976). Some perceptual determinants of perceived similarity, liking and correctness. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 34, 159 - 168.
- Hewitt, J.P. (1979). Self and Society, (2nd Ed.) Boston : Allyn and Bacon.
- Hindman, R.E. (1979). A survey related to the use of female law enforcement officers. The Police Chief, 42, 58 - 59.
- Horne, P.P. (1973). The role of women in law enforcement. The Police Chief, 40 (7), 60 - 63.
- Horne, P.P. (1980). Women in law enforcement, (2nd Ed.) Springfield, IL : Charles C Thomas.
- Horowitz, F.D. (1962). The relationship of anxiety, self-concept and sociometric status among fourth, fifth and sixth grade children. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 65, 212 - 214.
- Israel, J. (1958). Self-evaluation in groups. Acta Sociologica, 3, 29 - 47.
- Jans, N.A. (1982). The nature and measurement of work involvement. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 55, 57 - 67.
- Jones, E., and Davis, K. (1965). From acts to dispositions : The attribution process in person perception. In I. Berkowitz (Ed). Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol 2). New York : Academic Press.
- Kammann, R. (1983). Objective circumstances, life satisfaction and sense of well-being : consistencies across time and place. New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 12, 14 - 22.

Kammann, R., Christie, D., Irwin, R., and Dixon, G. (1979). Properties of an inventory to measure happiness (and psychological health). New Zealand Psychologist, 8 (1), 1 - 9.

Kammann, R., and Flett, R. (a) (1983). Source book for measuring well-being with affectometer 2. Why Not? Foundation.

Kammann, R., and Flett, R. (b) (1983). Affectometer 2 : A scale to measure current level of general happiness. Australian Journal of Psychology, 35, 257 - 263.

Kanter, R.M. (1977). Some effects of proportions on group life : Skewed sex ratios and responses to token women. American Journal of Sociology, 82, 965 - 990.

Kazdin, A.E. (1979). Imagery elaboration and self-efficacy in the covert modelling treatment of unassertive behaviour. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 47, 725 - 733.

Kemper, T. (1966). Self-conceptions and the expectations of significant others. Sociological Quarterly, 7, 323 - 343.

Kelley, H.H. (1983). The process of causal attribution. American Psychologist, 28, 107 - 128.

Klimoski, R.J. and London, M. (1974). Role of the rater in performance appraisal. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, 445 - 451.

Layton, P.L. (1984). Self-efficacy, Locus of control, career salience, and women's career choice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota.

- Lichter, S., Haye, K., and Kammann, R (1980). Increasing happiness through cognitive retraining. New Zealand Psychologist, 9, 57 - 66.
- Linville, P.W., and Jones, E.E. (1980). Polarized appraisals of out-group members. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38, 689 - 703.
- Macke, A.S., Hudis, P., and Larrick, D. (1979). Sex role attitudes and employment among women : a dynamic model of continuity and change. In Sawhill, I.V. (Ed), Women's changing roles at home and on the job. National Commission on Manpower Policy. Special report No 26.
- Martin, S.E. (1979). Policewomen and policewomen : Occupational role dilemmas and choices of female officers. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 7 (3), 314 - 323.
- McArthur, L.Z. (1982). Judging a book by its cover : A cognitive analysis of the relationship between physical appearance and stereotyping. In Hastorf, A.H., and Isen, A.M. (Eds). Cognitive Social Psychology. New York : Elsevier.
- McArthur, L.Z., and Fridman, S. (1980). Illusory correlation in impression formation : Variations in the shared distinctiveness effect as a function of the distinctive person's age, race and sex. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 39, 615 - 624.
- Mead, G.H. (1934). Mind, self and society. Chicago : University of Chicago.
- Mechanic, D. (1980). Comment on Gove and Hughes. American Sociological Review, 45, 513 - 514.



- Melchionne, T.M. (1974). The changing role of policewomen. Police Journal, 68 (4), 340 - 358.
- Miyamoto, S.F., and Dornbusch, S. (1956). A test of the symbolic interactionist hypotheses of self-conception. American Journal of Sociology, 61, 399 - 403.
- Neisser, U. (1976). Cognition and reality : principles and implications of cognitive psychology. San Francisco : Freeman.
- Oldham, G.R. (1976). Job characteristics and internal motivation : The moderating effect of interpersonal and individual variables. Human Relations, 29, 559 - 569.
- Oldham, G.R., Hackman, J.R., and Pearce, J.L. (1976). Conditions under which employees respond positively to enriched work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 61, 395 - 403.
- Oldham, G.R., Hackman, J.R., and Stepina, L.P. (1978). Norms for the job diagnostic survey. Technical Report No 16, School of Organisation and Management. Yale University.
- Orpen, C., and Bush, R. (1968). The lack of congruence between self-concept and public image. The Journal of Social Psychology, 93, 145 - 146.
- Petrowsky, M. (1976). Marital status, sex, and the social networks of the elderly, Journal of Marriage and Family, 38, 749 - 756.
- Pettigrew, T.F. (1979). The ultimate attribution error : extending Allport's cognitive analysis of prejudice. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 5, 461 - 476.

- Pfafflin, S.M. (1984). Women, Science and Technology. American Psychologist, 39, 1183 - 1186.
- Pheterson, G.I., Kiesler, S.B., and Goldberg, P.A. (1971). Evaluation of the performance of women as a function of their sex, achievement and personal history. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 17, 229 - 235.
- Pliske, R., and Smith, K. (1979). Semantic categorisation in a linear order problem. Memory and Cognition, 4, 297 - 302.
- Pryor, J.B., and Merluzzi, T.V. (1985). The role of expertise in processing social interaction scripts. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 21 (4), 362 - 379.
- Quarantelli, E.L. and Cooper, J. (1966). Self-conceptions and others : A further test of the Meadian hypothesis. Sociological Quarterly, 7, 281 - 297.
- Quattrone, G.A. and Jones, E.E. (1980). The perception of variability within in-groups and out-groups : implications for the law of small numbers. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38, 141 - 152.
- Rasinski, K.A., Crocker, J. and Hastie, R. (1985). Another look at sex stereotypes and social judgements : An analysis of the social perceiver's use of subjective probabilities. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49 (2), 317 - 326.
- Reeder, G.D., and Brewer, M.B. (1979). A semantic model of dispositional attribution in interpersonal perception. Psychological Review, 86, 61 - 79.

- Robertson, J.F. (1977). Grandmotherhood : A study of role conceptions. Journal of Marriage and Family, 39, 165 - 174.
- Robinson, J., and McArthur, L.Z. (1981). The impact of salient vocal qualities on causal attribution for a speaker's behaviour. Unpublished manuscript, Brandeis University. Waltham, Mass.
- Rodin, I., and Langer, E. (1980). Aging labels : the decline of control and the fall of self esteem. Journal of Social Issues, 36, 12 - 29.
- Rothbart, M., Evans, M. and Fulero, S. (1979). Recall for confirming events : Memory processes and the maintenance of social stereotypes. Journal of Experimental and Social Psychology, 15, 343 - 356.
- Sagar, H.A., and Schofield, J.W. (1980). Racial and behavioural cues in black and white children's perceptions of ambiguously aggressive acts. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 39, 590 - 598.
- Schneider, B. (1970). Relationship between various criteria of leadership in small groups. Journal of Social Psychology, 82, 253 - 261.
- Schrauger, J.S., and Schoeneman, T.J. (1979). Symbolic interactionist view of self-concept : Through the looking glass darkly. Psychological Bulletin, 86 (3), 549 - 573.
- Secord, P.F., Bevan, W., and Katz, B. (1956). Perceptual accentuation and the Negro stereotype. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 53, 78 - 83.
- Secord, P.F., Dukes, W.F., and Bevan, W. (1954). Personalities in faces : I. An Experiment in social processing. Genetic Psychology Monographs, 49, 231 - 279.

- Secord, P.F., and Muthard, J.E. (1953). Personalities in faces : IV. A descriptive analysis of the perception of women's faces and the identification of physiognomic determinants. Journal of Psychology, 39, 261 - 278.
- Sharan, M.B. (1978). Ideal - Perceived Self-Discrepancy as an index of Self-Satisfaction. Journal of Indian Psychology, 1 (2), 207 - 210.
- Sherman, L.J. (1975). An evaluation of policewomen on patrol in a suburban police department. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 4, 434 - 438.
- Shinar, E.H. (1975). Sexual stereotypes of occupations. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 7, 99 - 111.
- Shinar, E.H. (1978). Person perception as a function of occupations and sex. Sex Roles, 4 (5), 679 - 693.
- Singer, M.S., and Singer, A.E. (1985). Sex differences in perception of male and female police officers in New Zealand. Journal of Psychology, 119 (1), 53 - 59.
- Snyder, M., and Cantor, N. (1979). Testing hypotheses about other people : The use of historical knowledge. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 15, 330 - 342.
- Snyder, M., and Swann, W.B. (1978). Hypothesis - testing processes in Social interaction. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36, 1202 - 1212.
- Stephan, W.G. (1985). Intergroup Relations. In Lindzey, G., and Aronson, E. (Eds). Handbook of Social Psychology : Volume II Theory and Method. New York : Random House.

- Sterling, B.S., and Owen, J.W. (1982). Perceptions of demanding versus reasoning male and female police officers. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 8 (2), 336 - 340.
- Stryker, S., and Statham, A. (1985). Symbolic Interaction and Role Theory. In Lindzey, G., and Aronson, E. (Eds). Handbook of Social Psychology Volume I Theory and Method. New York : Random House.
- Tajfel, H., Sheikh, A.A., and Gardner, R.C. (1964). Content of stereotypes and the inference of similarity between members of stereotyped groups. Acta Psychologica, 22, 191 - 201.
- Taylor, S.E., Fiske, S.T., Etcoff, N.L., and Ruderman, A.J. (1978). Categorical and contextual basis of person memory and stereotyping. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36, 778 - 793.
- Taynor, J., and Deaux, K. (1975). Equity and perceived sex differences : Role behaviour as defined by the task, the mode and the actor. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 3, 381 - 390.
- Teichman, M. (1972). Cognitive differentiation between self-concept and image of self ascribed to parents in boys on the verge of delinquency. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 34, 573 - 574.
- Thomas, W.I., and Thomas, D.S. (1928). The Child in America. New York : Knopf.
- Turner, J.H. (1974). The Structure of Sociological Theory. Homewood, Ill : Dorsey.
- Tversky, A. (1977). Features of Similarity. Psychological Review, 84, 327 - 253.

Tversky, A., and Kahneman, D. (1973). Availability : A heuristic for judging frequency and probability. Cognitive Psychology, 5, 207 - 232.

Vega, M., and Silverman, I.J. (1982). Female police officers as viewed by their male counterparts. Police Studies, 5 (1), 31 - 39.

Verbrugge, L. (1980). Possible causes of the apparent sex differences in physical health. American Sociological Review, 45, 507 - 512.

Walhood, D.S., and Klopfer, W.G. (1971). Congruence between self-concept and public image. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 37 (1), 148 - 150.

Wheeler, K.G. (1983). Comparison of self-efficacy and expectancy models of occupational preferences for college males and females. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 56, 73 - 78.

Wickelgren, W.A. (1981). Human learning and memory. Annual Review of Psychology, 32, 23 - 52.

Wilder, D.A., and Allen, V.L. (1978). Group membership and preference for information about others. Personality and Social Psychological Bulletin, 4, 106 - 110.

Wood, V., and Robertson, J. (1978). Friendship and kinship interaction : differential effect on the morale of the elderly. Journal of Marriage and Family, 40, 367 - 375.

APPENDIX 1

## INTRODUCTORY PAGES

Dear Sir/Madam

You have been selected to be presented with this package containing a number of questionnaires.

They constitute the core of a research project being conducted by the researcher in order to satisfy the requirements set by the University of Canterbury for admittance to the degree of Master of Science. The research aims to look at Police Officers and their attitudes toward their work and colleagues.

Participation in the research is by no means compulsory. However, given that there are only a small number of female Police Officers in New Zealand and that it is desirable that we sample the same numbers of male and female officers, it is extremely important that you invest the small amount of time necessary (15-20 minutes) to fill out and post (in the stamped, addressed envelope provided) to me your completed questionnaire. It would be unfortunate if the results were found to be insignificant simply due to the fact that we did not receive enough completed questionnaires. So, your co-operation and promptness would be very much appreciated.

Although your superiors have shown their support for the project, individuals' questionnaires will not be seen by anyone other than myself, they do not go through the department, they come straight back to me. The anonymity of all subjects will be maintained throughout the course of the research and thereafter.

Please read through the rest of the introductory pages completely before you begin to fill out the questionnaires that follow. Failure to do so may result in your not fully understanding certain aspects of the questionnaires, which could complicate your task and also bias the results. If you read all instructions carefully and completely the questionnaire should be easy to understand and will require only quick and uncomplicated responses.

When filling out these questionnaires, please do so independently. Do not discuss your responses with anyone as, given the nature of the questions, it will probably bias the results, this is most important. It would also be appreciated if you would not divulge the nature of the study to anyone who has not yet completed their questionnaire as it may also effect their responses.

There are six questionnaires in all. The first three deal with attitudes and feelings toward aspects of yourself, your life and your job. The instructions are straight forward and should not pose any problems providing that you read them carefully and completely.

The last three questionnaires are all called the "Image Ratings Scale". The content of each questionnaire does not differ but the instructions attached to each do. Therefore, read all instructions, paying particular attention to those in the box labelled "IMPORTANT". This must be emphasized as your understanding of the instructions and how they differ, is vitally important. Once this has been done you shouldn't have any trouble answering the questions.

To help you further, the following are some queries that some subjects have had.

1. With regard to two of the "Image Ratings Scale" questionnaires, the word average is used in connection with the term Police Officer. You may ask, what does



average mean? It is not always easy to define it, so what I would like you to do when considering its meaning is:

- (a) Do not think of any one person in particular.
  - (b) Ignore rank, that is give equal consideration to everybody as a Police Officer, regardless of rank.
2. Some of the questions in the "Image Ratings Scale" questionnaires (i.e. Section B) ask you to rate how "effective" you are (and others) in different situations. If you have never been in the situation then do not leave it blank. What I am looking for is your rating of how effective you think you are or would be given the opportunity. Therefore, you need not have experienced the particular situation to formulate an idea of how you would perform.
- However, if this is the case (i.e., you have not experienced the situation) then please indicate this by writing underneath the item "never been in situation".
3. To you some of the items in the "Image Ratings Scale" questionnaires (especially Section A) may seem ambiguous, i.e., you may think that it has several meanings. If this is the case please do not leave it blank, fill it in according to your interpretation of its meaning. However, please indicate your doubts by writing below the item that you feel that it is "too ambiguous".
4. Remember that the scales in the "Image Ratings Scale" questionnaires are continuous. That is, you are given a number of alternative positions between two adjectives having opposite meaning whereby you can indicate where the most appropriate description lies.

A copy of the results will be made available after the research has been completed. Again, I would like to thank you for your co-operation.

Thank you.

Ken Love (Researcher)

Before you begin, could you please answer the following set of questions as they may be of relevance when interpreting the responses made in the questionnaires.

---

Sex:      F\_\_\_\_\_ M\_\_\_\_\_

Age: (in years) \_\_\_\_\_

Rank: \_\_\_\_\_ Length of service: \_\_\_\_\_

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE AFFECTOMETER 2

Instructions

The Affectometer 2 is a questionnaire for reporting how often you have certain feelings which are related to your emotional satisfaction and life fulfillment.

The items are sentences which describe different feelings about yourself and your life. For each item please circle the number that best describes how often you have had that feeling over the last few weeks. You have five choices:

- 0 Not at all
- 1 Occasionally
- 2 Some of the time
- 3 Often
- 4 All the time

You may wish that you could choose a phrase which is in-between one of the choices given, but if you choose the one which comes closest to your experiences, your results will still be very accurate. Describe your own honest feelings as best you can. You do not need to spend a long time on the items.

AFFECTOMETER 2

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |     |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----|
| 1. My life is on the right track.....                                     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 2. I seem to be left alone when I<br>don't want to be.....                | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 3. I feel I can do whatever I<br>want to.....                             | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 4. I think clearly and creatively.....                                    | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 5. I feel like a failure.....   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 6. Nothing seems very much fun anymore.                                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 7. I like myself.....   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 8. I can't be bothered doing anything..                                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 9. I feel close to people around me....                                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 10. I feel as though the best years of<br>my life are over.....           | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 11. My future looks good.....   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 12. I have lost interest in other<br>people and don't care about them.... | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 13. I have energy to spare.....   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 14. I smile and laugh a lot.....  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 15. I wish I could change some parts of<br>my life.....                   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 16. My thoughts go around in useless<br>circles.....                      | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 17. I can handle any problems that<br>come up.....                        | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 18. My life seems stuck in a rut.....                                     | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 19. I feel loved and trusted.....   | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |
| 20. I feel there must be something<br>wrong with me.....                  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ___ |

### JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Could you please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale.

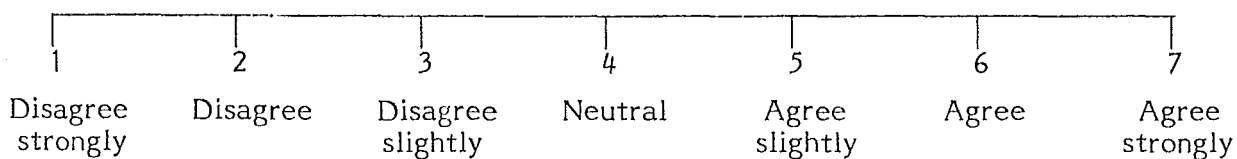
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Slightly dissatisfied	Neutral	Slightly satisfied	Satisfied	Extremely satisfied

- 
1. The amount of job security I have ..... \_\_\_\_\_
  2. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive ..... \_\_\_\_\_
  3. The amount of personal growth and development I  
get in doing my job..... \_\_\_\_\_
  4. The people I talk to and work with on my job .. \_\_\_\_\_
  5. The degree of respect and fair treatment I  
receive from my superiors..... \_\_\_\_\_
  6. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get  
from doing my job..... \_\_\_\_\_
  7. The chance to get to know other people while  
on the job..... \_\_\_\_\_
  8. The amount of support and guidance I receive  
from my immediate superior..... \_\_\_\_\_
  9. The degree to which I am fairly paid for  
what I contribute to this organisation ..... \_\_\_\_\_
  10. The amount of independent thought and action  
I can exercise in my job..... \_\_\_\_\_
  11. How secure things look for me in the future  
in this organisation..... \_\_\_\_\_
  12. The chance to help other people while at work.. \_\_\_\_\_
  13. The amount of challenge in my job..... \_\_\_\_\_
  14. The overall quality of the supervision I receive  
in my work..... \_\_\_\_\_

Now please indicate how you personally feel about your job

Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own, personal feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale:



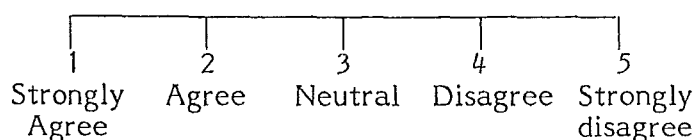
1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with  
this job.....
2. I frequently think of quitting this job ....
3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work  
I do in this job.....

### JOB INVOLVEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

In the following questionnaire could you please indicate how you personally feel about your job.

Each of the following statements is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own person feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale.



1. The performance of my present job is a good test of my skill and ability..... \_\_\_\_\_
2. Other kinds of work in the Police are more important to me than the kind I do in my present job..... \_\_\_\_\_
3. I feel badly if I don't perform well in my present job..... \_\_\_\_\_
4. My present job plays an important part in my plan for getting ahead in the Police..... \_\_\_\_\_
5. I am able to utilise abilities I value in the performance of my present job..... \_\_\_\_\_
6. I am very much involved personally in the kind of work I do in my present job ..... \_\_\_\_\_
7. I'm really a perfectionist about the work I do in my present job ..... \_\_\_\_\_
8. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my present job..... \_\_\_\_\_
9. I feel depressed when I fail at anything connected with my work..... \_\_\_\_\_
10. I live, eat and breathe my present job ..... \_\_\_\_\_
11. You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job they do ..... \_\_\_\_\_
12. Sometimes I lie awake at night, thinking ahead to the next day's work (in my present job) ..... \_\_\_\_\_

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE "IMAGE RATINGS SCALE"

The "Image Ratings Scale" is a questionnaire for reporting people's perceptions of themselves and others.

It has been designed specifically with the Police Officer in mind and the duties that he or she performs.

When filling out this questionnaire could you please describe your own honest feelings as best you can.

The questionnaire consists of three sections:

Section A  
Section B  
and Section C

### IMPORTANT

IN ALL THREE SECTIONS COULD YOU PLEASE INDICATE,  
WITH REGARD TO THE ITEMS IN EACH, YOUR PERCEPTIONS  
OF YOURSELF AS A POLICE OFFICER.



### INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE "IMAGE RATINGS SCALE"

The "Image Ratings Scale" is a questionnaire for reporting people's perceptions of themselves and others.

It has been designed specifically with the Police Officer in mind and the duties that he or she performs.

When filling out this questionnaire could you please describe your own honest feelings as best you can.

The questionnaire consists of three sections:

Section A  
Section B  
and Section C

### IMPORTANT

IN ALL THREE SECTIONS COULD YOU PLEASE INDICATE,  
WITH REGARD TO THE ITEMS IN EACH, YOUR PERCEPTIONS  
OF THE AVERAGE FEMALE POLICE OFFICER.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE "IMAGE RATINGS SCALE"

The "Image Ratings Scale" is a questionnaire for reporting people's perceptions of themselves and others.

It has been designed specifically with the Police Officer in mind and the duties that he or she performs.

When filling out this questionnaire, could you please describe your own honest feelings as best you can.

The questionnaire consists of three sections:

Section A  
Section B  
and Section C

### IMPORTANT

IN ALL THREE SECTIONS, COULD YOU PLEASE INDICATE,  
WITH REGARD TO THE ITEMS IN EACH, YOUR PERCEPTIONS  
OF THE AVERAGE MALE POLICE OFFICER.

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE "IMAGE RATINGS SCALE"

The "Image Ratings Scale" is a questionnaire for reporting people's perceptions of themselves and others.

It has been designed specifically with the Police Officer in mind and the duties that he or she performs.

When filling out the questionnaire could you please describe your own honest feelings as best you can.

The questionnaire consists of three sections:

Section A  
Section B  
and Section C

### IMPORTANT

IN ALL THREE SECTIONS COULD YOU PLEASE PUT YOURSELF  
IN THE SHOES OF THE AVERAGE MALE POLICE OFFICER AND  
INDICATE, WITH REGARD TO THE ITEMS IN EACH SECTION,  
HOW YOU THINK HE WOULD RATE YOU.

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE "IMAGE RATINGS SCALE"

The "Image Ratings Scale" is a questionnaire for reporting people's perceptions of themselves and others.

It has been designed specifically with the Police Officer in mind and the duties that he or she performs.

When filling out the questionnaire could you please describe your one honest feelings as best you can.

The questionnaire consists of three sections:

Section A  
Section B  
and Section C

### IMPORTANT

IN ALL THREE SECTIONS COULD YOU PLEASE PUT YOURSELF  
IN THE SHOES OF THE AVERAGE FEMALE POLICE OFFICER  
AND INDICATE, WITH REGARD TO THE ITEMS IN EACH  
SECTION, HOW YOU THINK SHE WOULD RATE YOU.

## THE IMAGE RATINGS SCALE

### SECTION A

Section A consists of sets of descriptors.

Each set takes the form of a continuum between two adjectives having opposite meaning.

Please indicate on each continuum where the most appropriate description lies.

For example;

heavy \_ ✓ \_ \_ \_ \_ light

---

	For office use only
threatening _ _ _ _ _ non-threatening	_____
unkind _ _ _ _ _ kind	_____
assertive _ _ _ _ _ submissive	_____
impatient _ _ _ _ _ patient	_____
trusting _ _ _ _ _ suspicious	_____
weak _ _ _ _ _ strong	_____
intelligent _ _ _ _ _ unintelligent	_____
non-competitive _ _ _ _ _ competitive	_____
effective _ _ _ _ _ ineffective	_____

## THE IMAGE RATINGS SCALE

### SECTION B

Section B consists of a number of items relating to both task effectiveness and occupational acceptance.

Again, please indicate on each continuum where the most appropriate description lies.

For example: effectiveness in handling clerical and administrative duties.

effective \_ \_ \_   ✓   \_ \_ \_ ineffective

---

For office  
use only

1. Effectiveness in handling violent offenders \_\_\_\_\_

effective \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ ineffective

2. Effectiveness in handling domestic disputes \_\_\_\_\_

ineffective \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ effective

3. Effectiveness in handling riot situations \_\_\_\_\_

effective \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ ineffective

4. Effectiveness in handling youth aid problems \_\_\_\_\_

ineffective \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ effective

5. Professional acceptance \_\_\_\_\_

acceptable \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ unacceptable

SECTION C

Section C relates to the degree of felt stress experienced by Police Officers within the occupation.

Once again, please indicate on the following continuum the most appropriate description of the degree of felt stress.

For office  
use only

stressful \_ \_ \_ \_ \_ non-stressful \_ \_ \_

APPENDIX 2OCCUPATIONAL RATINGS SCALE

Any given concept can be described on a continuum between two adjectives having opposite meaning. For example, the concept "knife" can be rated on a seven point graphic scale as being more closely related to one or the other pair of opposites, such as

sharp \_ \_ ✓ \_ \_ \_ \_ dull

Based on this information, could you please rate each of the following occupations in terms of its being masculine, feminine or neutral on the following seven point bipolar scale.

masculine                      neutral                      feminine

\_\_\_\_\_

Assuming that the scales are divided into equal intervals, please make a quick and independent judgement on each scale. Example, High School Teachers.

masc                      neutr                      fem

\_\_\_\_\_ ✓ \_\_\_\_\_



For office  
use only

	masc	neutr	fem	
1. Police Officer	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
2. Engineer	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
3. Head Librarian	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
4. Race car driver	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
5. Radio announcer	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
6. Dentist	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
7. Law Clerk	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
8. Florist	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
9. Pharmacist	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
10. Private Secretary	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
11. Social Worker	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
12. Computer Programmer	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
13. Counselling Psychologist	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
14. Politician	_____	_____	_____	_____
	masc	neutr	fem	
15. Bank Teller	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX 3

Chi-Square summary data for occupational role conflict

	UPPER	LOWER
MALE	16	17
FEMALE	9	12

$$\chi^2 = 0.16, \text{ NS}$$